

The Modern Language Journal

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TEACHING STUDENTS TO READ A FOREIGN LANGUAGE VERSUS LETTING THEM LEARN HOW

(Author's Summary.—An adaptation of modern methods of learning to read the vernacular to the problem of learning to read a foreign language.)

IN LEARNING to read the vernacular in the grades only the visual aspect of the words is new. The matter read deals with objects and situations within the range of the child's experience, and it is couched in words that are known to him both orally and aurally. By associating the printed word with its heard and spoken equivalent, the former also becomes identified with meaning, or the concept in the child's mind. In order to envisage this old friend, meaning, in a new dress, the child must necessarily compare the costumes. He must hold both simultaneously in mind until they become, as it were, an east and a west view of one and the same thing. The teacher pronounces the word while the child looks at it (approaching it through the aural aspect); next the child pronounces (approaching the oral side). A very successful modification of this plan, as carried out in some beginners' readers, is to have the child first memorize Mother Goose and nursery rimes and then visualize and pronounce them in their printed form. Apparently the printed symbol cannot for a time arouse meaning without first awakening one or both of the previously known images that have heretofore been the only accepted cues of this particular meaning. One would expect this to be the case, and it is verified in the fact that beginners invariably read aloud for content. But nature is prolific in short-cuts, and soon the oral and the aural imagery may be dispensed with and meaning comes into mind clothed only in its visual aspect.

In learning to read a foreign language, the problem is not merely a matter of substitution of imagery but an outright substitution of

new thought symbols, unknown in all three aspects. For example, it is a simple matter to connect the printed word "cat" with the common household pet because the child has heard and used this same word repeatedly. The only thing necessary is to connect this printed sign with the heard and spoken equivalent a sufficient number of times for it to become identified or blended with them. But when an English-speaking student encounters the printed Spanish word *gato*, neither the heard nor the spoken equivalent conveys any meaning to him. The label for this concept has always been "cat," and when it is changed to *gato* he has no way of recognizing it. There is no magic in words; they are purely arbitrary conventional signs which *per se* can have no innate meaning. If *gato* is now to do duty for "cat" then it must first be clearly associated with "cat." The learner must know what the proposed substitution involves, and then he must be subjected to drill in making the substitution effective. The first requisite would be met if "cat" and *gato* were visualized simultaneously, and the second if *gato* were visualized and compared with the memory image of the word "cat."¹ If the latter act is repeated a sufficient number of times, making *gato* always stand as a tangible support for the memory image of "cat," a time will come when the former may act as a substitute label for the concept "cat," capable of calling up said concept without any edging in of the old label. The Spanish word *gato* will then have about the same relation to "cat" as "ludicrous" had to "funny" when as a child we learned this longer word. When we first met with it we had to connect it with the known word "funny" because it was not a word we used then and hence could not be apprehended through its oral and aural aspects. Doubtless we continued to connect it with "funny" in an ever decreasing degree until it could function alone. Now when we meet it in a series of other words derived from Latin it does not any longer have to call up "funny."

If the foreign language being studied corresponded exactly, one

¹The memory image of the word "cat" and not the concrete image of any particular cat is necessary here because the substitution concerns the concept "cat" and not any individual cat. It has to do with any individual of the species, and consequently the comparison must be made between the things to be substituted, viz., the English word that stands for this whole class of animals and this new label that likewise represents this same concept.

word for another, always in the same order, with words in our native language, the problem of learning to read it would differ largely in degree from that of learning to read the vernacular. It would only mean that we evolve some sort of technique to offset the learner's lack of acquaintance with the oral and aural aspects of the foreign words. We should only have to devise some way of bringing about a close and unequivocal connection between the respective native-language and foreign-language words. The problem would be similar to that of learning the international telegraphic code as substitute for the letters of the alphabet. A better comparison might be that of a merchant's substituting a new cost mark for the price affixed to his goods. In either case such a transfer of the signs of meaning would entail, first a comparative view of the respective signs of meaning, next drill in connecting the new signs with the old, and finally practice in using the new signs to call up meaning direct.

If no more complications were involved in learning to read a foreign language, we could teach a whole string of, say, Spanish words by presenting an interlinear version of short sentences in which every Spanish word had its corresponding English equivalent written immediately above or below it. We could then leave blanks in the English version, omitting now one word, now another, and compare the incomplete English sentence with the complete Spanish form, until the latter would be sufficient of itself to awaken the thought included. As soon as a working stock of some twenty or thirty Spanish words had been thus connected with their English equivalents, practice in interpretative reading could be begun by rearranging the known foreign words into short sentences and have the students read them until no translation into English were felt to be necessary in order to tap meaning.

But now comes the rub! In no two languages is the corresponding content of the separate words even reasonably uniform. The concepts in the mind of one native to the Spanish language do not always have the same boundaries that they do in the mind of one native to English. The words, therefore, standing for these concepts will differ in contour and extension. Take for example *El gato es bonito* as the equivalent of 'The cat is pretty.' If a Spanish-speaking individual chances to have in mind a female cat, his wording of this thought will be: *La gata es bonita*, which substitutes one wholly new

word and distorts two others beyond the point of recognition to the student who has just learned: *El gato es bonito*.

Inflections are often employed in one language that do duty for separate words in another: I do not read a great deal = *No leo mucho*.

Word order is quite often different: I see her = *La veo*.

Many idiomatic turns in the respective languages entail the use of words that have wholly dissimilar connotations from every other word in the other language: I am thirsty = *Tengo sed*.

Numberless other discrepancies, all of which follow certain definitely fixed principles, a knowledge of which is absolutely necessary to any use of the language, make the word as such an unsatisfactory and even impossible measuring-stick. This fact, while fully realized by teachers of modern foreign languages, has never been squarely faced and worked out.

The Modern Foreign Language Study has mapped out the broad lines that we should follow in improving our technique, and the many excellent tests recently perfected show us where we fall short. It behooves us to take stock of our methods of instruction and try to bring them up to date.

We have gone woefully astray in our teaching of reading. A visitor from Mars would probably say that our methods are unscientific and haphazard, that our students learn to read in spite of our help rather than because of it. Some specific criticisms might be:

Firstly, we begin on the wrong end of the problem in making the ultimate object the immediate one, because from the very outset we expect students to read for content (to decipher), when reading for content is what we hope to fit them to do after they have learned how to read. We have not stopped to consider whether throwing a beginner into the water is perhaps the best way to teach him how to swim.

Secondly, we have chosen a unit of study, the word, which is not the common divisor of the student's native language and the foreign language being studied. In oral speech, the word is really an arbitrary division. Illiterates and children show by their peculiar combinations that they do not really know where one word of a group ends and another begins. The writer thought that *I'd rather* was *I drather* until he met this expression correctly divided into words in his third reader. A child of his acquaintance persistently used the

word *ife*, which when run down was found to be the result of dividing a *knife* (*an ife*) after the manner of *an apple*. Words do have a forced separate identity in their printed form, but it has been shown that they do not by any means correspond when two languages are being compared.

Thirdly, we have made the problem of this elusive word study unduly difficult in teaching reading by listing only root foreign words in the vocabulary. Without specifically instructing the student how to proceed, we imply to him that it would be well to lop off all inflectional endings before attempting to look up the meaning of the separate words. Having learned this trick, he searches the vocabulary, hidden away at the back of the book, and finds some three or four possible equivalents of the word in question. Now, without being told what to do, he learns that he must tack on the inflections he has just stripped off and compare them with his known stock of learned inflections, so as to limit the direction of whatever equivalent he later decides may best fit in with other similarly held surrounding words. Obviously, in all such drill the attention is squarely focused on English. The student is interested, not in what the foreign words mean, but in what they conceal. A psychologist would say that a merciful and kindly censor, beginning to function as soon as the student should have proven to the teacher at the following recitation that he had done the busy-work required of him, would speedily remove all traces of such uninviting drudgery by the rapid obliteration of all these offending foreign words from consciousness.

Reading the vernacular, until comparatively recently, was taught by first teaching the letters of the alphabet, after which the student learned to spell detached syllables, and finally whole words. Then only was he considered far enough advanced to tackle the problem of reading. That the *abc*-method was discarded was due to three reasons:

- 1). It began with and was based upon a unit that was logically the fundamental and ultimate division of speech, but which in reality played no part in the actual use of language.

- 2). It failed to utilize a ready approach to learning the printed word, viz., the spoken equivalent as given by the teacher, thereby forcing the learner to be a discoverer when he might have been a spectator being shown how to view from a new angle what was already his own.

3). It confused the immediate problem with the ultimate one, in that it attempted to have the students read before they had been provided with a reading vocabulary.

Apparently we modern language teachers are still at the old *abc*-method of teaching reading. Our unit of work, the word, is analogous to the letters of the alphabet. Learning inflections is comparable to learning syllables. Memorizing of paradigms is similar to spelling. Our belittling and even trying to avoid the use of English equivalents is as bad as their withholding the spoken equivalents. Expecting our students to read for content before we have provided them with a reading vocabulary makes us more drastic puzzle setters than were our grandfathers in exacting the unaided pronunciation of a new native word.

There can be no question of increased efficiency through the use of modern methods of teaching children to read the vernacular. And while the problem is not wholly analogous, we modern language teachers can reap similar benefits by adapting to our needs those phases of it that unquestionably apply. Apparently this would mean:

1). That we make up our minds that, in learning a foreign language, the native language need not and cannot be ignored, and that it can be made an asset instead of a liability if we analyze the matter and approach it adequately.

Concepts and the words in our native language standing for these concepts gradually took form simultaneously in childhood. A child does not know what "chair" really means until he has heard it applied to various chairs. The image of the word "chair" held in mind gives substance to this budding concept, and only by the time that the child makes the same use of this word as do his elders is his concept fully developed. Obviously the concept could not develop without some material aid. It seems clear that concept and word are gradually and mutually apprehended and thereafter are close counterparts. We cannot, if we would, build up all concepts anew, but we can retag those that have the same extension of meaning as in our own language, but in doing this we must summon and manipulate the said concept by means of its familiar label. Concerning those concepts that have a somewhat different boundary from the roughly equivalent counterpart in our native language, it seems to be a reasonable procedure to compare them with the nearest thing we have to offer.

2). That, since learning to read a foreign language in the time usually devoted to it and at the level at which it is usually begun, we recognize the fact that it must be a highly artificial process, de-

manding a well worked-out technique of introduction of each of its separate phases.

3). That we separate the problem into its major constituent elements: (a) pronunciation; (b) acquirement of reading tools; (c) practice in the use of these tools.

4). That we clear the ground for interpretative reading by teaching the student how to pronounce the foreign words, attacking this problem as a unit in a purely mechanical way and devoting to it alone at least eight or ten recitations.

An adequate pronunciation is necessary for later drill exercises because the oral and the aural support tend to fortify the visual side and thus help the student to remember the words.

5). That we concentrate then on acquainting the student with the tools of work: a small foreign-language vocabulary, and some of the elementary principles governing the related use of the foreign words.

6). That we approach this phase of the matter from the standpoint of analysis by selecting as a unit of approach the unit of linguistic use, which for teaching purposes may well be the complete short sentence.

A very long sentence would certainly contain more than one such linguistic unit. Since the unit is determined solely by fluent speech, it is hard to define it. We never see it marked off in print, but we follow oral habits of speech in reading aloud. It is marked by an initial and a final pause and contains sufficient words to present a vivid picture. Anyone can readily mark it off by reading aloud. Its extreme length seems to be determined by the number of stressed syllables it contains, which, so far as the writer can determine, never seems to exceed four in number. For example, *Six big fierce dogs barked*, cannot well be uttered in one continuous impulse because each word, though monosyllabic, is stressed. One necessarily pauses on uttering the word 'dog.' But the much longer sentence *An unusually elegant automobile stopped*, can be uttered as one complete unit. The pause between units is really only a hesitation like that of holding a note for two beats before proceeding to the next. It seems that we go to the extreme rhythmic limits, linking together as many words as possible, yet being influenced by two factors: (a) making a group of words sufficient to insure concreteness, and (b) having in mind a fairly equable division of the whole sentence. For example, *A very fine car stopped there* is one unit, while *A very fine car stopped in front of the house* must be divided after 'car.' It would be strange indeed if there were always an exact conformity in the use of this measuring-stick when applied to two different languages, but the correspondance is so striking that we should be justified in its employment even if it did not offer

the additional advantage of being a more concrete and definite unit. *Six big fierce dogs* uttered in one continuous impulse or visualized in one uninterrupted eye-sweep portrays a graphic and understandable situation, while these same words apprehended successively present almost endless leads that require rapid mental gymnastics to be blended into any coherent mass. Short sentences would always conform in relative content, and if a complete sentence of the foreign language is made the unit of study from the very outset, each word thereof will have definitely marked-out boundaries that fit into those that precede and follow it. Students who have begun their study of the foreign language through the use of this unit would not have to learn by the hit-and-miss method that it is also the unit of comprehension, of translation, and of speaking.

7). That we give substance to this series of foreign words composing the sentence to be studied by providing its exact equivalent in English in a printed parallel version.

Here is where current methods fail most signally. We ask the student to discover what the sentence means. We withhold from him the only thing that can be a link as this period between what he already knows and what we are striving to teach him. We expect the student to blunder into the correct use of the new tools before we have let him observe how a finished workman wields them.

8). That we lead the student to observe what the separate foreign words mean by comparing the two versions and calling attention to any dissimilarity of content and order of arrangement as exemplified in the foreign-language version.

Since all languages are printed in word units, it is necessary that the word be the ultimate object of study. The advantage claimed at this point is that, since the individual words do not always correspond even in short simple sentences, this study should be a matter of analysis instead of a matter of synthesis. Apparently the only way to make it analytical is to break up a larger unit into its components. But if any analysis is to be effective, the student should certainly know the meaning back of what he is analyzing. The object of his study at this point is not content but form, and if furnishing him with the content will throw any light on the form it should obviously not be withheld.

9). That we institute drill exercises that tend to strengthen this observed connection between the separate foreign words and their meaning, and keep it up until the sight (or the sound) of these foreign words may of itself arouse the meaning intended.

If the student has before him the Spanish sentence *El gato es bonito* and its English equivalent 'The cat is pretty,' he can soon learn to clothe this same thought in English when confronted alone with the Spanish version. There is

no harm at all in encouraging him to translate for recognition purposes provided he translates complete thought units. English has always been his medium of grasping any thought and we could not hope to interfere with this useful habit. It would be harmful if he translated *el* into 'the' and thereby got the idea that it alone meant 'the,' for he would then be at sea when he later had to attempt to translate *la*, *los*, and *las*. If we can get him to see (not expect him to figure out) that *El gato es bonito* means 'The cat is pretty,' we can likewise show him that *La gata es bonita* is only a variant form of this same idea, and that *Los gatos son bonitos* and *Las gatas son bonitas* are merely usages of his now acquired vocabulary. He is then in a position to understand that *el*, *la*, *los*, *las* are now equally effective in standing for that idea that has always heretofore been ticketed by the single label 'the.' Besides now knowing what all these Spanish words mean, the student has learned by guided observation what it would have been difficult to teach him if this matter had been presented apart from any complete thought. The names of other animals and other qualities, introducing perhaps the forms of the indefinite article, could likewise be taught during the first reading lesson, so that the student is provided with a vocabulary of about twenty words. The sentences exemplifying these Spanish words would be paralleled by their corresponding English equivalents. During the early attempts to identify the foreign words with their English equivalents, the student would be encouraged to translate into English (he would have to do this whether or not he received the encouragement) first by visualizing the English sentence on the opposite page, then by comparing the Spanish version with a memory image of the English version. But after all, translation into the mother tongue is only a crutch on which to lean until the student gets his bearing in this strange land, only a beginning and not an end. And it is this fact that is meant by 'drill exercises that tend to strengthen this initial observed connection.' These short Spanish sentences, differently arranged, and included on a separate page away from all English equivalents, would now be made the basis of drill. Careful drawings, instead of English equivalents, would now be utilized to call up meaning, and students would be asked to read these sentences aloud over and over again. Next a few questions in Spanish, paralleled by their English equivalents, would be taught as were the earlier sentences above. After learning the meaning of these questions, students would be asked to underline in the reading above the answers to these various questions. They might be asked to copy answers to be selected for any given question. A further elaboration of this drill would be to have them answer 'si' or 'no' to some of these questions propounded orally by the teacher. They certainly should not be expected to prepare answers either orally or in writing because such efforts would not be a drill in the recognition of meaning but a construction of form. It is doubtful whether any constructive type of drill, such as filling blanks, completion exercises, substitution of inflected forms, etc. should yet be undertaken, because all such drill makes the native language the point of attack. The early drill exercises should rather be wholly of the recognition type, as emphasized by Michael West in his teaching of English to native children of India

(see his "Construction of Reading Material for Teaching a Foreign Language," The Oxford University Press, 1927.) Mr. West utilizes some of the devices suggested above and suggests others: (a) 'marking sentences as true or false,' (b) 'selecting the right answer from three alternatives,' (c) 'numbering items in a picture to correspond with its descriptive sentence.' Mr. West argues convincingly that 'after all the essence of true reading is to pick out the required idea,' and he implies that any type of drill unrelated to this need is positively harmful. Mr. West also advocates the use of a companion reader (the same content in the student's native language) in order to supply the meaning of the words. His drill exercises listed above are for the purpose of helping the learner remember them. The writer takes pleasure in giving due credit to Mr. West for many of the practical details offered above concerning the organization of suitable drill exercises that might tend to link the foreign words with meaning. It was also gratifying to learn that Mr. West advocates the use of a companion version in the student's native language as an initial introduction to the foreign words. The phenomenal success of his system in India makes Mr. West's recommendation worthy of attention.

10). As a final step in the cycle, that we have the students read for content a large amount of simple material that includes only the known vocabulary and brings in only those principles of syntax previously analyzed.

The purpose is now to lead the student to begin to use the new language in its printed form as an instrument for interpreting thought. The object is no longer to show what the foreign words mean but to make them touch off meaning directly, to stimulate and guide inner thought—in short, to serve in a less perfect manner the same purpose that printed English words serve. The drill now will no longer be expository but of a challenging nature. The matter to be read should not be translated outright into English, for the student has already been drilled in identifying the foreign words with English tokens of thought. The learner must be exposed to these known symbols until he does not feel the necessity of fortifying them with native language labels of thought.²

²The writer is not quite sure that he has analyzed this step fully. It seems to elude him. The problem is to get away from translation and to make the connection between symbols and meaning a direct one; yet one must admit that inner translation is still going on, at least as concerns those combinations that differ to any great degree from those met with in his parallel reading. The difficulty is to organize suitable drill exercises that minimize inner translations and fortify this gradually awakening direct connection, so that meaning may follow immediately upon the visualization of the foreign words. The only exercises that the writer can think of that might tend to this end are: (a) first, silent reading of a connected series of sentences so that the attention might be squarely focussed upon the content; (b) second, reading aloud of the same so that the oral and the aural phases might fortify this yet insecure visual hold

11). When the possibilities of interpretative drill based upon the known words and grammatical principles so far worked out are exhausted, that we repeat the cycle, learning more new words and more new principles which may then in turn be tried out and perfected as outlined above.

The question as to how long the method as outlined should be followed is difficult to answer. The writer firmly believes that progress through its use would be so rapid that in one semester a student ought to be able to read simple prose somewhat after the manner he reads English, being able by that time to divine the meaning of new words by the context. He would certainly have to look up the meaning of an occasional word, but his known vocabulary of foreign words would carry the thread of the thought, and the new words could be added to his previous stock. In view of the difficulties involved, we have no right to expect miraculous results even through the use of this perfect (?) method. It might take a year to equip the student for 'real reading,' but granting that it did, he would have been gainfully employed in devoting his energy to the matter at hand.

The writer is fully aware what a complex of grounded antagonism and even innate prejudices he is arousing by suggesting that English equivalents of whole sentences be utilized as a basis in the acquirement of an initial reading vocabulary of foreign words. A conservative group of our best teachers will question this procedure on the

on meaning. Admittedly there is no worthwhile check on ascertaining whether or not students have actually done either of these things. The teacher can easily test the student's interpretation of the content by the use of the recognition exercises listed above, but how can we test whether or not he has gone through the steps deemed essential to the best ultimate results? In addition to testing the results of our work (which seems to be fairly well perfected) we should be able to test at each step whether the student has obtained the results by doing something that may give immediate power but which may work against ultimate ends in view. In other words, the daily testing should clearly test the teacher's skill in getting the student to do what is best for him in the long run. For example, a student might show up well in interpretation of content because he had translated, and yet be farther away from the ultimate goal of being able to interpret directly than one who showed poorer results because he had not made use of translation. Suitable checking devices of this nature could probably be worked out in actual practice. Fairness compels the writer to state that he does not yet see just the best method to do it.

grounds that it defeats our aims in precluding self-activity on the part of the student, seemingly so necessary in learning a new language. The writer would respectfully call their attention to the suggested devices intended for this end. He would in turn ask them whether the self-activity induced by searching the vocabulary for English equivalents is possibly the type best suited to language growth. Discounting the further advantages claimed for this method through its attack on this many-sided problem from the standpoint of analysis, one might also question the desirability of setting students to read without having first prepared them to read—asking them to make brick without straw! When dealing with a mental process so highly involved as that of learning to read a foreign language, we have no right to expect such immediate results. Some of us have learned by experience that we do not get them however much we may expect them. It is impossible for students to read before they have acquired a reading vocabulary. Puzzle-solving cannot be considered reading. The question to consider here is whether one might reasonably expect better results through the use of a method that recognizes the difficulties and attempts to anticipate them, or through the use of a method that ignores these graded steps and forces the student through trial and error to discover these facts for himself. Lastly, the writer is led to ask what is the advantage in having the student look up the meaning of separate non-conforming words of a sentence when he might as well learn a whole string of them without even the drudgery of referring to a note tucked away at the back of the text? If one admits that English equivalents are necessary (as the inclusion of a bilingual vocabulary certainly implies) then there is no point at all in hiding them away. If the meaning of an isolated word is of any value at all, then why not kill a whole covey of birds with one stone?

Another group of objectors, the extreme direct methodists, less open-minded to any new idea that clashes with their pipe dreams, merit a more spirited rejoinder. It is they who will surely counter with that deathless, yet long since dead, argument that no native-language equivalents are necessary, that their use prevents the student from the very first day from thinking in the foreign language. A wonderful system that! Really a miracle they are performing in making an initial direct connection between foreign word and meaning

without the intermediary of the English equivalent. Just see how easily it is done! A book is held up and *libro* is uttered, and presto, the deed is done! The concept "book" that stands for big books, little books, red books, green books, dictionaries, grammars, Bibles, and even the separate books of the Bible, a concept which for the particular student on whom the miracle is being performed has always been manipulated by the English word "book" finds itself now, without the slightest difficulty, wearing an absolutely new cognomen! And the strangest part of it all is that, even though on every previous occasion this concept was materialized through the student's preferred imagery of this English word "book," on this particular occasion it magically assumed tangibility without any handle at all; and when it thus stood forth in its stark nakedness, the Spanish word *libro* fastened itself upon it and the two became as one. And all the while, the student, mind you, never suspected that *libro* meant the same thing as "book." The connection was a direct one, and not, as one might erroneously be led to believe, between this Blank's Spanish grammar and the Spanish word *libro* but actually between this new word and every other possible book not yet held up!

Obviously such sarcasm is wasted, for no thinking person can possibly believe that any such connection is a direct one. Any direct connection here or elsewhere must be a matter of growth, in the process of which such a word as *libro*, forced to be the perceptible sign of the concept, might become so fused with the latter that "book" need no longer be called in as a support. Of course, if the reading matter consists of such sentences as *El elefante es un animal*, no direct connection will possibly ever grow out of it, for the similarity is too obvious ever to be shaken off.

In conclusion, the writer begs indulgence for possibly needless repetitions. His only excuse is that he has previously tried unsuccessfully to set forth this plan, and his desire to be clearly understood this time has led him to repeat in various ways the pivotal points. His alibi for stooping to ridicule on one occasion is that he was goaded into it.

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TRAINING FOR READING: TECHNIQUE*

(*Author's summary.*—Justification of the Reading Method and an account of an experiment in the development of a direct-reading technique adapted to students of high school age.)

The publication of Professor Algernon Coleman's *Report on The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States*, synthesizing the findings of the recently concluded nation-wide survey known as the Modern Foreign Language Study, has aroused teachers of these languages to vigorous thinking upon the fundamental problems of the objectives, content, and method of the modern foreign language courses in our schools.

There seems to be general agreement that reading should be the chief aim of the study of modern foreign languages in the schools, but opinion is divided as to how reading ability may be most effectively and most economically acquired. A satisfactory solution of the problem must take cognizance of the fact, disclosed by enrollment figures of the Study, that approximately 83 per cent of those who begin the study of a modern foreign language in our schools do not continue it for more than two years. Teachers face the necessity, therefore, of selecting a course content and devising a class-room technique that will give maximum skill in reading to the average student enrolled in the normal two-year course and at the same time serve the best interests of the small minority who pursue the subject further.

Judging from a perusal of Professor Coleman's *Report* and current pedagogical literature, there are at present two conflicting points of view. Some favor the development of reading ability by abundant direct reading experience, supplemented by due attention to the elements that are thought to be contributory to its acquisition—proponents of what is commonly designated as the "Reading Method." Others would reach the goal of reading power by the indirect route of oral proficiency, believing that reading ability is an outgrowth of language mastery—adherents of the "Direct Method."

It is not surprising that devotees of the direct method, to which we owe emphasis upon the spoken word and a revitalizing

* A paper read before the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers at Columbus, Ohio, July 1, 1930.

of modern language teaching at a time when it was steeped in the deadly routine of the grammatical method, should listen at first with misgivings and perhaps even alarm to advocates of a program in which silent reading is to play a prominent part. They no doubt vision a return to the lifeless state of affairs which called forth Viëtor's famous battle-cry: "Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren!" But a closer examination of the new program will convince even the most loyal partisan of an oral method that his fears are ill-grounded, for proponents of the reading method have grown up in the tradition of the direct method and the present reform, true to the history of most reform movements, has evolved from the guild itself.

In departing from the direct method, we do not need to return to the grammar method. There is a middle course.

The inadequacy of the direct method to meet conditions in this country is not voiced first in the *Coleman Report*. In the year 1922 the *Modern Language Journal* records the protests of two outstanding leaders of modern language pedagogy in our country, themselves expert practitioners of the direct method: Professor Barry Cerf of Reed College and the late Professor J. D. Deihl, long connected with the University of Wisconsin High School. Attacking the problem on a practical basis, Professor Cerf would ask before selecting any objective: "(1) Can it be achieved? (2) If so, how much of our limited time must be given to achieving it? (3) Is it worth achieving at this price?" And he submits the following proposal: "The emphasis in the teaching of French which has in the last two decades shifted from reading to conversation should be shifted back again from conversation to reading." His reason is: "Our emphasis is on conversation, and yet we cannot honestly say: Our students learn to converse in French; for they cannot learn to carry on a conversation under any conditions possible in our public schools. . . . Conversation can of course be taught in special schools, and by tutors, but it cannot be taught in our public schools because we have not enough teachers capable of teaching it and because not enough time can be allotted to us for the purpose. At present almost all of us are trying to use a method more or less approximating the direct method. Let us look squarely at the results, for surely everything must be judged by its fruits. . . . I have some students in a third year university

class who are fresh from a four year French course with a teacher who, I think, is probably as good a high school teacher of French as can be found in the United States. This teacher uses the conversational method, and uses it very skillfully. The pupils I have in mind are among the best she has sent out, and yet their conversational ability is, I have discovered, really very slight—far too slight to justify the effort they have put into it. Their pronunciation is only fair; they make the most elementary blunders in grammar; they have no facility when they get out of the realm of opening and shutting doors into the realm of even simple ideas—and yet these girls are excellent pupils of an excellent teacher; I should realize this even if I did not know whence they came, for they are more capable and far better prepared than any of the other students in the class.”¹ Professor Deihl makes a similar plea: “For the American child of average station and training, place the emphasis in foreign language study in the Junior High School where it is placed in English study, on the silent reading ability. . . . Subordinate all other features of instruction: oral drill, phonetic analysis, spelling, grammar study, written exercises, etc., to the acquirement of silent reading power.”²

Professor Coleman in his *Report* traces this movement still farther back, to the days of the Committee of XII, and quotes from their report itself and from opinions expressed by two contemporaries, Professors Grandgent and Joynes—pioneers in the field of modern language teaching. The Committee of XII makes this recommendation: “Until we are willing to lengthen the time given to the linguistic part of our children’s education we shall have to renounce the idea of a full and well-rounded knowledge of French and German and, selecting the portion of the subject that appears to be most important for the greatest number, devote ourselves to the cultivation of that restricted field. Considerations of this nature have led many thoughtful teachers to adopt a mode of instruction that we may call the ‘reading method’.” Professor Joynes advocates a substantial increase in the amount of reading, saying: “We do not read enough; it is not depth but range, not knowledge only, but the ease of practised habits that is . . . lacking in our results.” To make room for more reading he would sub-

¹ *Modern Language Journal* VI. (1922) 419-440.

² *Modern Language Journal* VII. (1922) 67-74.

ordinate grammar, speaking, and written composition. "The most significant element common to the three proposals," remarks Professor Coleman, "is the thesis that a course of less than three years in length should concentrate on the development of reading ability and that, consequently, to this end some readjustment of method and content is necessary."

Professor M. A. Buchanan in his preliminary report as chairman of the Canadian Committee of the Modern Foreign Language Study, calls attention to the wide-spread influence of this point of view on current educational thought. He says: "... merely because the modern languages represent living speech in Europe and Quebec is not sufficient reason for restricting the study of them to those who can or may expect to make practical use of them. Access through reading to modern literature and thought may for many people be sacrificed for the sake of the few who come into contact with foreigners or the French-speaking people of Canada. *It is extraordinary what a body of opinion in Europe and elsewhere has swung around to the opinion here expressed.*³ It has been influenced, of course, by the realization that the actual achievement of the classroom even where, as in certain parts of Canada, conditions seem to be most favorable, falls short of the goal set by enthusiasts, and all to the neglect of attainable objectives."⁴

Toward the close of his account of the development of teaching methods in the United States, recently written for the Modern Foreign Language Study,⁵ Professor Bagster-Collins of Teachers College, Columbia University, says: "How best to teach reading still belongs to the unsolved problems in the modern classroom. And while there is no intention of reverting to the narrow humdrum translation method of a generation ago, there are many today who believe that undue prominence given to oral work, as exemplified in many courses and series of text books, cannot be defended if the language situation in this country is squarely faced."

Let us turn now to the findings of the Modern Foreign Language Study on the problem of the method of acquiring reading ability, as given in Professor Coleman's *Report*.

³ Italics mine.

⁴ Educational Record VIII (1922) 266-276.

⁵ *Studies in Modern Language Teaching*, Macmillan, 1930.

The Study directed its attention first to the present status of modern foreign language teaching. By means of questionnaires, special inquiries, and an extensive testing program, it sought definite information as to the results of the prevailing objectives, course-content, and methods. The evidence is summarized as follows: "(1) Only a minority of the selected teachers consulted were of the opinion that a two-year course is long enough to enable as many as 50 per cent of their pupils to develop the ability to read and to write the language—and a still smaller minority in the case of ability to speak; (2) the scores made on American Council tests in French, German, and Spanish indicate that at least 50 per cent of the two-year group and at least 30 per cent of the three-year group cannot use the foreign language for reading and for writing with even a moderate degree of ease." As to the value of such evidence, Professor Coleman remarks: "When teachers in lower and in higher institutions are substantially in agreement and when their reasoned judgments are supported by the evidence derived from achievement tests, the two together offer the most substantial ground for reaching conclusions that has so far been provided."

The Committee regarded it therefore as clearly necessary to limit the objectives to the kind of abilities that can be generally developed and to the kind of knowledge than can be mastered in the time allotted to modern languages in the programs of most secondary school students. Their conclusion is: "Since reading ability is the one objective on which all agree, classroom efforts during the first two years should center primarily on developing the ability to understand the foreign language readily through the eye and through the ear. The goal must be to read the foreign language directly with a degree of understanding comparable to that possessed in reading the vernacular. In order that students may attain this goal, reading experience must be adequate and the results of all other types of class exercise must converge toward the same end."

In the revised list of immediate objectives for the first two years, first place is given to the receptive abilities, reading and hearing; the expression abilities, speaking and writing, are deferred as ends in themselves to the third and fourth years, or until after the reading attitude is developed.

What are the views of the psychologists on this phase of language learning?

According to Professor E. D. MacPhee in the Introduction to the Bibliography of the Canadian Report,⁶ there are two criteria to be met in the selection of method: "(1) That it stimulates the student to active effort; for learning goes on only when the subject is active; it is never a process of passive absorption; (2) that it provides practice in doing the type of thing the student wants to know. If it is desired to form an oral speech habit, articulation must be an important part of the method; if the emphasis is on silent reading, *the student must be practised in rapid visual recognition*,⁷ since this is the function he wishes to use."

Professor H. C. Morrison⁸ sets forth as follows the objectives of the study of foreign language in our schools: "So far as use of the language is concerned, there are two primary objectives, either the reading adaptation in French . . . or the speaking adaptation. . . . That the speaking adaptation can readily be learned in the school is probably doubtful. . . . That pupils can be led to the reading adaptation in its full sense is beyond question. . . . The objective then being clearly in mind, the teacher proceeds directly toward its attainment. He utilizes such forms of presentation, class exercises, and reading material as will definitely focus upon the attainment of the objectives. He cherishes no illusions that learning lessons about the structure of the language will automatically transfer to ability to read." Again, "On the principles to which we adhere, the first course has for its single objective ability to read. . . . For many pupils, the reading course is all that is essential or even desirable. It is the foreign language contribution to a general education."

Professor Jespersen says: "The passive or receptive knowledge of a language always goes far beyond the active or reproductive."⁹ Professor Michael West¹⁰ believes that "the initial stage of learning

⁶ *Modern Language Instruction in Canada*, Vol. I. The University of Toronto Press, 1928.

⁷ Italics mine.

⁸ *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, University of Chicago Press, 1926.

⁹ *Language*, Holt and Company 1922.

¹⁰ *Learning to Read a Foreign Language*, Longmans, Green, 1926.

a foreign language should be to learn to read it—even in the case of the student who aims at complete mastery (of reading, writing and speech). . . .” “What method should be used in teaching a child reading ability in a foreign language? . . .” he asks. “We need not begin by teaching the child to speak, for that would be to teach something easy by means of something more difficult.”

In his recent book, *Language in Education*,¹¹ Professor West discusses at some length this principle of priority of reading in learning a foreign language. He says: “This idea of Priority of Reading has been spoken of by some critics as if it were a strange and unheard-of thing. And yet the remarkable fact is that these very critics follow the principle every day of their lives. Let us consider, not the theoretical, but the actual, procedure of the Direct Method stalwart. He starts in the lowest class with conversation-lessons of the type ‘Stand up,’ ‘Sit down,’ . . . ‘It is a pen,’ ‘It is a pencil,’ etc. . . . After this stage, . . . he goes on to a reading-book. He has got to get on to a reading-book sooner or later for the sake of having something to talk about. And now if he were really a strict Direct Methodite, he would give a conversation lesson introducing certain words and forms, and the boys would *subsequently* read a story in which those words and forms occurred. But that is not the ordinary procedure, not even among the strictest Direct Methodites. In their higher classes they read a chapter of the book and *then* discuss it. And the reason is simply the problem of something to talk about. If you hold the conversation first, what is the conversation going to be about? Obviously the natural order is to read the chapter first, and then talk about the chapter.

“Where, then, is the difference? The only difference that I can see is that the *Direct Method boy is kept back in his reading to the pace at which he can learn to speak*;¹² and so, since the rate of learning to speak is very slow, he gets practically no reading practice at all. Whereas I like to see his reading go ahead as fast as it can in the fixed time given to it, and the speech follows after at whatever interval it may in the time given to it. . . . It is natural for a boy to read better than he can speak; and he will speak all the better if this is so.”

¹¹ Longmans, Green, 1929.

¹² Italics mine.

In order to speak or write a language correctly one must develop what is generally called an "instinctive feeling" for the foreign forms of expression. "Now that 'instinctive feeling' of the language," continues Professor West, "is not really an 'instinct' at all. It is the subconscious memory of the right form previously heard in speech or encountered in reading; . . . more probably in a book. This, then, is the main reason for starting reading some time before speech and for keeping the reading always well ahead of the speech in a foreign language. It tends to form this subconscious guardianship, especially in that otherwise unguarded early stage in which error is most probable and most disastrous."

"The conclusion appears to be inevitable," says Professor Coleman. "If the reading objective is to be realized in the maximum period which approximately 83 per cent of secondary school language pupils devote to the subject, we must consider whether it may not be worth while to reverse the emphasis and to place in the background some of the things to which our effort in the first two years is now largely devoted. Such are: the learning and recitation of forms; the study of a considerable list of syntactic phenomena considered essential for speaking and writing and the practice in composition thought necessary to render these phenomena automatically usable; the learning of a considerable stock of words and of idioms that belong almost exclusively to objects and actions in the classroom, and the very intensive study of brief daily assignments in reading."

The accessible experimental evidence on the development of reading ability by means of a direct-reading method is set forth in the *Report*. Special attention is given to the laboratory study of Professor Buswell of the University of Chicago and to the classroom experiments of Professor Michael West of India, of Professor Bond and colleagues of the University of Chicago, and of Professor Young and colleagues of the University of Iowa. The results of these experiments are sufficiently significant in the judgment of Professor Coleman to "give reason for believing that the yield in reading ability can be increased if we follow more nearly a procedure resembling that suggested by the 'reading method' of the Committee of Twelve as *interpreted in terms of today*, than if we adhere to the anomalous and illogical procedure for the course of the first two years that now prevails."

Professor Bond's experiment has been in progress for a period of ten years. Accordingly, several features of his technique have passed the experimental stage and have been set apart by him as forming a working nucleus for a successful reading procedure. These are: "(a) The subordination of all types of class drill to one primary aim, viz., *reading for thought content*. (b) Delayed re-productive grammar until the reading adjustment is attained or within reach. (c) Early, continuous, and abundant extensive (outside) reading. (d) Replacement of mastery technique by trial-and-error technique, particularly in the first stages of the course. (e) Attention to individual rather than mass instruction, with its administrative implications."¹³

As an outcome of Professor Young's initiative five years ago, the reading method has been adopted as a permanent program in the department of Romance Languages at the University of Iowa and experiments on various phases of the procedure are being continued.

An experiment in developing a direct-reading technique adapted to students of high school age has been under way at the University of Iowa High School for the past three years. During the year 1927-28 the reading method was introduced in both first and second year classes and careful experiments conducted, results being checked by a research assistant trained in statistical methods.

As a preliminary to the experiment in first year French, the following factors were selected which, in addition to direct-reading experience, were regarded as contributory to the development of reading ability: oral and aural training, vocabulary and idioms, and recognition-type grammar.

Careful training in pronunciation of French was given for three reasons: (1) as an aid to the acquisition of a feeling of intimacy with the language; (2) to provide an accurate basis for the "inner speech" that accompanies silent reading; (3) to give a correct foundation for a possible later oral command of the language. The grammatical vocabulary was taught separately from the reading vocabulary for reasons of economy of time. In the case of a grammar-language such as French, the basic grammatical forms, particularly the verb forms, can be mastered more quickly by

¹³ O. F. Bond, *The Nucleus of a Reading Technique*, *Modern Language Forum* XV (1930) 45-48.

utilizing the classification into categories furnished by a separate grammar text. As no recognition-type French grammar text adapted to learning at the high school age level was available, the instructor in charge of the experimental group prepared such grammatical material and furnished it to the pupils in mimeographed form. This material differed from the typical basic beginning book in French chiefly in four respects: (1) only those grammatical elements were incorporated that seemed to contribute to the reading adaptation; (2) these grammatical elements were introduced much more rapidly than would be advisable in a text designed to teach synthetic grammar; (3) the drills were all of the recognition-type; there were no synthetic direct-method exercises nor English to French translation exercises; (4) the vocabulary outside of the grammatical vocabulary was kept as small as possible since it was thought more advisable that a reading vocabulary be acquired through the reading of stories. The new grammatical forms and usages were introduced in a bit of connected reading matter, however, to favor an oral and inductive presentation. The chief emphasis was placed upon the verb.

The plans for the year's work centered about the class reading. A tentative selection was made leading up to and including the texts usually read in the first semester of second year French in the University High School. The total was 366 pages.

The first two weeks were entirely devoted to teaching pronunciation by the phonetic method supplemented by aural comprehension exercises which utilized the vocabulary of the early grammar lessons. Oral and aural practice was continued throughout the year by a systematic review of pronunciation, by the oral reading of the connected passages and various exercises of the grammar text, and by the presentation toward the end of the year of a French play before the school assembly.

During the third week, grammar lessons and class reading were begun. A few days later, some of the better pupils began outside reading of a simple story. The instructor guided the pupils in the reading of the first few pages, showing them how to utilize the relationships between English and French words, inference from context, suggestions from the illustrations, etc., and encouraging them to endeavor to get the running thought of the story without being inhibited by unknown words and without unnecessary reference to

the vocabulary. Grammar lessons, group class reading, and individual outside reading were continued throughout the year.

Since the main object of the experiment was to develop direct-reading ability, it was necessary to train the pupils to read with direct comprehension. Such ability is developed by several progressive stages. (The technique is of course much more successful with more carefully graded reading material such as was prepared for use during the second year of the experiment.)

In the first stage, the teacher, having previously divided the story into short thought units, reads aloud to the pupils to the end of the first unit, instructing the pupils to follow the text silently and to center their attention upon getting as much of the meaning of the story as possible, disregarding for the moment any words or sentences not clearly understood. When the teacher stops reading, the pupils look up from the text. Volunteers tell the story thus far in English. Any omissions are brought out by the teacher's questions. Pupils are asked to look away from the text before telling the content, to prevent a word-for-word translation. The thought should be expressed in their own words, without direct reference to the French text. This procedure is continued to the end of the story. Any parts of the story not understood by the pupils are reread orally by the teacher and difficulties cleared up. At the conclusion, the new words and idioms which have been selected for special study are pronounced by the pupils and their meanings given. Teacher and pupils discuss the relation of the new words to French words previously met or to English or Latin words. The pupils may then be given a set of French questions on the story to be answered in English or an objective content test in French covering the story.

The technique of the second stage is similar to that of the first, except that pupils read each thought-unit silently without the oral reading by the teacher. As each pupil finishes, he takes down the time and raises his hand. When the majority have finished, the degree of comprehension is checked by having the pupils tell the story in English or by answering French questions. The thought-units are gradually lengthened.

In the third stage, a new story is assigned to be read outside of class without previous preparation in class. Pupils are provided with French questions over the story for use in checking their com-

prehension. This procedure may be followed as soon as sufficient training has been given to insure the formation of correct habits by the pupils.

There was no oral translation of the reading lessons in class, except for passages whose meaning gave the pupils difficulty, comprehension being checked by objective-type tests. For the first two books, these tests were in English; for the remainder, they were in French. During the succeeding years of the experiment, the tests have been in French from the first.

The manner of treating class reading material was, accordingly, mid-way between the intensive classroom method of tradition and the very free extensive plan.

The pupils were encouraged to do as much individual reading outside of class as possible and a friendly spirit of emulation was aroused by recording each student's progress on a wall-chart displayed in the French room. The average amount read during the year was 262 pages, the range being from 60 to 42 pages. Adding the class reading, the average per person totals 628 pages, the range being from 96 to 408 pages. The degree of comprehension of the extensive reading was checked by individual oral or written tests.

The basic vocabulary was selected by checking the vocabulary of each class reading book with the Henmon *French Word Book*. Only words within the 1500 words of highest frequency were included. Lists of these words were then made by chapters in the order of their appearance in the text, so that no word would be set for study until it had been met in connected reading. Written tests and retests were given over these basic words. Similar procedure was followed with reference to the idioms. During the past two years of the experiment, the Vander Beke and Cheydleur frequency lists have been utilized.

At the end of the year the results in terms of scores on the American Council Alpha and Columbia Research standardized French tests were as follows: the median scores in both silent reading and vocabulary were between the national norms for the second and third years, the maximum scores reaching the fourth year norm in silent reading and surpassing it in vocabulary by seven points—a gain of from one and a half to three years over results secured by traditional methods. As a measure of the attainment in knowledge of synthetic grammar—a phase of grammar

which was not specifically taught to this group—they were given the American Council Cheydeur Selective Type Grammar Test. The median score was 34, two points less than the first year norm, the maximum was 44, eight points beyond the norm. It is rather significant that along with the superior attainment in reading power, the group had nearly equaled the knowledge of synthetic grammar of the typical class in which drill on synthetic exercises occupies the major portion of class-room time.

Some have questioned the durability of reading power acquired by such a program of passive comprehension with little or no exercise of the expression abilities in the form of oral and written synthetic exercises. To secure some objective data upon this important point, alternate forms of the same standardized silent reading tests were given during the first week of school in the autumn of that year to the members of the experimental group of the preceding year. All showed a gain of from two to ten points, with the exception of two; of these one remained stationary, the other lost three points.¹⁴

The second year's work of this experimental group followed the same general procedure as that of the first year, the class reading totaling 632 pages and the outside reading averaging 750 pages, with a maximum of 1200 pages. The class made consistent gains in reading ability; at the end of the first semester all had gained in both of the standardized silent reading tests; on the American Council, from two to five points, on the Columbia Research, from ten to twenty-nine points. All had passed beyond the fourth year norm in both tests except one pupil, whose score was, however, beyond the second year norm. At the end of the year all had reached or passed the fourth year norm in the American Council test, the maximum score being five points beyond the norm. In the Columbia Research test, all but one had passed beyond the fourth year norm, his score being three points below the third year norm. In vocabulary, all had passed beyond the fourth year norm except one, whose scores were two and three points below the norms. The direct attack upon reading ability had thus

¹⁴ This experiment was carried on simultaneously in a beginning class in the John Marshall high school, Minneapolis, with identical grammatical material and similar reading matter. The results of the two experimental classes were comparable in every respect.

resulted in a gain in accomplishment of two years or more over that obtained with the traditional methods.

If there is any significance in the data presented by this experiment, it lies in the fact that the results secured in the application of the principles of the reading method to the high school age level are entirely in harmony with the experimental evidence on this method at college level summarized in the *Coleman Report* and serve to reinforce the conclusions therein expressed.

The chief concern of the experiment during the past two years has been the preparation of more adequate teaching materials and the improvement of the teaching technique. The grammar lessons and exercises have been revised in the light of the class-room experience and the first unit of graded class reading material has been prepared and tried out with the classes. Work on the second unit and the preparation of supplementary reading material for the first unit are well under way.

The plan of the construction of this reading material was inspired by the pioneer work of Professor West. The selection of the reading vocabulary is based upon frequency lists, the density of new words is regulated, and the grammatical vocabulary is correlated with the grammar lessons. The supplementary readers are written in the vocabulary of the portion of the class texts immediately preceding them in the series. The ultimate goal toward which the work is directed is to provide materials which, in the words of Professor Bagster-Collins, "will allow pupils to travel with ever increasing speed across an almost level plain."¹⁵

As an illustration of the possibilities of the reading method, I should like to mention one individual case that seems to me of especial interest. It is the record of a fourteen-year old boy who has just completed three semesters of French in the high school, preceded by six-week's work in beginning French in the summer school demonstration class. Last year he entered the first year class at the beginning of the second semester, a privilege granted on the basis of his summer school work and his record as a student. At the end of the year his accomplishment in both vocabulary and silent reading was between that of third and fourth year students on the basis of results of the American Council and Columbia Re-

¹⁵ *German Quarterly*, III (1930) 20-27.

material taught the first year. For this reason, he was excused from the class grammar lessons and spent that time in individual reading. At the end of the first semester he surpassed the fourth-year norms of the American Council tests by one point in silent reading and by eleven points in vocabulary. He was accordingly transferred to an advanced class. With this class he studied synthetic grammar, wrote free compositions in French, and read 330 pages of French, the last text of the year being *Cyrano de Bergerac*. He also took part in the class French play given before the school assembly. At the end of the year, he surpassed the fourth-year norms of the standardized tests from three to five points in silent reading and from six to ten points in vocabulary. Though his study of synthetic grammar and practice in writing French was limited to one semester, he equalled the fourth-year norm on the Columbia Research grammar test and surpassed the fourth year norm by two points on the Cheydleur Grammar test and by four points on the American Council Alpha grammar test.

These results seem to indicate (1) that a reading method not only speeds up the acquisition of fluent reading ability but also that abundant reading experience is adequate preparation for the rapid acquisition of the expression abilities; (2) that the technique of a reading method is sufficiently flexible to care for the best interests of the superior as well as the average pupil; and (3) that the beginning of right teaching of a subject entails the careful selection of its basic elements.

In conclusion, may I express the hope that some possible misgivings regarding the Reading Method have been allayed. A reading technique does not imply merely "reading;" it does not exclude all study of grammar; it does not bar the use of the foreign language from the class room; the reading is not ungraded, unguided, unchecked—particularly in the early stages and with high school pupils; the reading is not all "silent"; "extensive" reading is not synonymous with "superficial" reading; "direct-reading" is not translation, or deciphering, or "dictionary-thumbing"; language mastery is not decried by proponents of the reading method; reading mastery is not advocated as a *substitute* for speaking or writing mastery but as the most efficacious *first stage* in the acquisition of these skills. And finally, the technique of the Reading Method is not yet crystallized; it is still in the formative stage

search tests. At the beginning of the next year, he made a grade of 95 per cent on a 150-item objective test covering all the grammatical which invites fascinating adventure. "The writer of the *Report*," as Professor Bagster-Collins says, "by no means offers a panacea ready at hand. It must be worked for, if we are to be at all successful. Those of the Committee sponsoring the suggestion urge experimentation, much experimentation under varied conditions. . . . I am confident that with greater continuity of aim and effort, much can be done to increase the amount and quality of reading control, if the teachers throughout the country become, in the jargon of the salesman, 'reading conscious'."¹⁵

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STYLE AND RICARDO LEÓN¹

(*Author's Summary.*—A discussion of the cliché suggested by Julio Casares' criticism in *Crítica Profana* of Ricardo León; his theory of predominant ear-memory as its cause; its conflict with psychologists' findings.)

LITERARY Spain has in Julio Casares a critic of a type which English-speaking countries would be fortunate to develop. In his *Crítica Profana* he divides three hundred and fifty pages almost equally between Valle Inclán, Martínez Ruiz, and Ricardo León; he examines them word by word through book after book with a most uncommon minuteness, and admirable fairness, from the points of view of diction, syntax, style, and literary personality, with stress upon diction. He is graceful and ingratiating, pleasurably readable. The study of Ricardo León is dated 1916 which is recent enough for our purpose since León's best books, thus far, had already been published. Our purpose is restricted, by the necessary brevity of this paper, to examining a single point of the estimate made by Casares. But first let me quote a paragraph on León's style in general. (P. 294.)

"In one of the clever dialogues that compose *La Escuela de los Sofistas*," says Casares, "one of the characters, who may well be Ricardo León himself, says: 'I wish no more than to enjoy the fleeting harmonies of my facile words.' And I think this comprises the author's aesthetics, as does this from the Prologue to *Los Centauros*: 'This novel is no mere caprice or pastime, but the preface to loftier things, which, if God gives me health, you will hear from me later.' This," continues Casares, "is Ricardo León: in form, 'the fleeting harmonies of facile words', chaste diction, musical cadence, pleasant tone; in substance, a moralizing interpretation of life on the two parallel rails of country and religion."

These characteristics, believes Casares, have caused the dislike of León's fellow writers, and perhaps also his great popular success. Without profound insight but also without erotic crudity, without resort to paradox and employing only simple tales, conventional scenes, and characters with very low relief or no relief, León has nevertheless written himself into popularity at home and abroad, become an academician, and aroused strong antagonism, the refrain of which is that León has *no style*.

The charge of *no style* is absurd, as Casares is quick to observe, and I may add that anyone who can give to a series of novels

¹ Read at the Thirteenth Annual Meeting of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish, Washington, D. C., December 27, 1929.

such uniformity as Ricardo León's is certainly possessed of a well-marked style, whether a desirable one or not. Within the completest stereotype is always a style. Everybody has style, even the stylists. The real question is, *What kind of style? Is it good or bad?* Casares is the only one who has furnished the data for answering it.

One group of these data is a collection of León's stereotyped phrases, and this is the detail to which my paper must be confined.

Experienced readers are irritated by the stereotyped phrase, or, as we now more briefly call it, the cliché. But most readers either do not notice it or positively enjoy it. Why? I venture to say it is for the same reason for which they like the larger, more extensive cliché, such as the political speech, the dogmatic sermon, the novel in which the hero and heroine live happy ever afterward. Most people do not like a change of diet, dogma or dénouement. The adventurous spirit is rare. Wanderlust in art is certainly so. An artist who strives to be fresh and original may well be alarmed at popularity or the friendly eye of an academician. It shows he is not up to the mark he has set for himself. The average reader wishes to be at ease and he finds his ease in conventionality. The cliché, therefore, is what he likes; he likes it in small sizes and large ones—stereotyped phrase, hackneyed plot, trite theme, the whole conventional treatment. It is only the few who are impatient with the cliché, whatever art they find it in. And of course they are right in this. But I do not believe they are entirely right, as Casares thinks, and I hope to offer a qualification later. But in general they are right, because music, painting, and imaginative writing are dulled by the cliché. This does not mean—far from it—that they are dulled by pattern. Pattern is indispensable to the arts, as the horrible patternless noises and splotches and pages of recent notoriety make clear. Within a pattern there is plenty of room for variety and fresh charm. The few readers, then, who are impatient with the cliché do not confuse it with pattern, any more than they confuse the sonnet with defects in a use of it. A cliché is in most cases a failure to make use of some part of a pattern. For instance, when I say "a consummation devoutly to be wished" am I lulling my readers to sleep or am I pricking them to attention? This cliché was once, in some now forgotten pattern, on some now forgotten occasion, a bit of vivid color. But now, on my occasion or yours, why not say it in my way, in your way? Again, why say "all that

was mortal of"? Probably being so well known, it is the first phrase that comes to mind under certain conditions, as when making a funeral speech or writing a description of a death. But colloquially I should not use it; I should be more likely to say "the body."

It is the unwitting use of such stereotyped phrases that dulls and weakens the art of their user. The phrase may, by chance, be appropriate to the context, but an artist leaves nothing to chance when he is at his best. He chooses his words deliberately, with an alert avoidance of incongruity. If I wish my speech or my writing to be peculiarly mine, I shall take care to employ "all that was mortal of" only when it is quite the best phrase for the passage in which it occurs. And in that passage it is not a cliché; it is more appropriate to the pattern than any other phrase would be. Furthermore, in such a case it is as peculiarly mine as if I had been the first to use it. And so with all clichés: the artist will employ or reject them according to his purpose; he will oftenest reject them, because generally he has thought of something more telling.

Is, then, so sincere an artist as Ricardo León properly chargeable with a persistent inartistic use of the cliché? Casares leaves me with the impression that León, in his opinion, surrenders to it habitually. Since Casares has made a close study of León's vocabulary, and I have not, I can say only that I believe the impression he gives to be wrong, and probably not the impression he intended to leave, since I am sure he meant to be entirely fair. We must leave that point undecided, since my chief purpose is to speak of the interesting explanation made by Casares of the persistent appearance of the cliché. It is a psycho-physiological explanation. He suggests that if the cliché abounds, we probably have a writer whose ear is more acute than his eye. One of these senses, sight or hearing, is almost sure to predominate. Either the eye or the ear rules the memory. If visual memory prevails, we have a graphic, concrete writer. If ear-memory, then the writer is declamatory and abstract. Such an ear-minded writer instantly associates an idea with the time-honored *word*; but an eye-minded writer associates it with an *image*, and not a time-honored one but one out of his own experience. The idea of, let us say, "Christmas" occurs to the ear-minded man, and he instantly thinks of the word "merry," which is the epithet he has always *heard*. And so with hundreds of epithets, such as *fidus Achates*, leave *severely* alone, the *tender*

mercies, the *glorious Fourth*, *seriously* incline, the *psychological* moment, *far-darting* Phoebus.

But this, says Casares, is not the process in the eye-remembering writer. He, in the presence of an idea, sees the image before he hears the word; and not a single image but many. Therefore instead of a trite epithet automatically attaching to the idea, a number of fresh images struggle to be chosen. The chances are thus very good for the choice by the artist of the most appropriate image, and the best word for that image, to the exclusion of the hackneyed. He thus secures a vivid, concrete and original phrase.

Let us take an example from Casares and see what reaction there will be in each type of mind. Let us suppose an ear-minded writer to be in the presence of the idea of *tristeza*:

Apenas evocado el sentimiento de *tristeza*, surge ya esta palabra acompañada de su leal e inseparable epíteto *profunda*; y antes de que el autor decida si su personaje sentía, o tenía, o padecía, etc., ya ha sonado en el aire y corre hacia los puntos de la pluma, rematada y cabal, toda de una pieza, la eterna frase: *una profunda tristeza embargaba su ánimo*.

But an author of the eye-memory type, when, under the same circumstances, the same idea of *tristeza* occurs, *sees* the idea in a picture before he hears it in the word; and not in one picture but many, one of which finally dominates and is selected. For example, the image of an afternoon in autumn is the image that dominates. Now, there are various phrases that may express the association of sadness with autumn, and the writer must choose one of them: *una tristeza desapacible y fría como un atardecer de otoño le traspasaba hasta los huesos; le envolvía una tristeza otoñal; veía el mundo exterior a través de la brumosa tristeza de un ocaso otoñal*; etc. The association of sadness with autumn is an ancient one; but, says Casares, there is, for the eye-rememberer, ample room for variety in expressing it, while the ear is limited to the well-known, oft-heard phrase.

The psychologists would not agree to this. For instance, Dr. Mabel R. Fernald² says that "investigation shows a decided preponderance of visual imagery over the auditory for the majority" of persons examined. But most people (I summarize from the *Diagnosis*) at the same time that they visualize also recall something heard; or they may see, hear, and also represent the thought

² *Diagnosis of Mental Imagery*, Psychological Review Publications, vol. 14, p. 43.

in their own movements; again, they may get one type of image for one class of objects and another type for another class, visualizing words, for instance, but obtaining verbal descriptive images of people. In brief, this eminent psychologist does not believe a difference of imagery is responsible for differences of style, nor for appreciation of any particular style. By the same token she would deny that "the ear is limited to the well-known, oft-heard phrase" and would declare—and in this I presume other psychologists concur—that the same words would be used to describe the same situation by either visual or auditory persons, and the description would be as varied in one case as in the other. In fact, I clearly gather this from the *Diagnosis*. No layman can properly take exception to these findings, having none of his own; yet I confess that the simplicity of Casares' explanation is alluring, as simplicity generally is. But we know that the senses are crowded pretty close together in us, and simplicity is not very reasonably to be expected.

Casares' theory suggests another question which he does not raise. If the cliché is objectionable, how shall we explain its abundance in the most enduring pieces of literature? *The wise Odysseus, heedful Penelope, merry laughter, pointed spear, bitter anger*—a page would not hold the list of Homer's hackneyed phrases. *Barba tan cumplida, burgalés cumplido, ardida lanza, el que en buen hora cingió espada*—the Poema del Cid is full of these. And so on throughout the ages and in all nations. Can it be that the few to be found in careful modern authors like Ricardo León are faint traces of what was once indispensable to good writing? If so, we must qualify our censure of the cliché, since a demoded fashion is not necessarily a bad one. It is a point I shall not try to settle here. At any rate the classic epithet has not destroyed for us the gorgeous color and striking action of the Iliad, the Poema del Cid, the Chanson de Roland. Is it not probable, in view of the fast colors of these epics, that frequently it is best to use the well known phrase when the accent is on some other part of the passage? It may be better to leave an epithet undisturbed than to cause it to be missed. Again, it may be that in Homer and the rest these phrases were not hackneyed.

For instance: "Then to the dead man spake the noble Achilles. . . . He said; and from the corpse drew forth his bronze spear, and set it aside, and stripped the bloody armor from the

shoulders." I dare say that, here, the "noble" Achilles was the gloating Achilles, the revengeful Achilles, the exultant Achilles, the . . . well, something more telling, at this point, than the noble Achilles. More telling, that is, for us. We cannot know what it was, what it meant, to the first listeners. Likewise we should probably omit the stereotyped "bronze" of "bronze spear," while carefully retaining "bloody," because a spear is a spear and we are not interested any further; but the bloody armor is a startling sight, therefore "bloody armor" is not a cliché although "bronze spear" is, or seems to us of today to be one. We cannot know what it was before the walls of Troy. What seems correct, however, whether then or now, is that anything that makes for shocking treatment of Hector's corpse is appropriate, and that no irrelevant or immaterial word should be permitted to dilute or discolor the passage. Thus it seems to me the translator might have come nearer to Homer, might have made the passage still more savage than it is by using more violent words; he might have said: "and from the corpse he wrenched his spear, and threw it aside, and tore the bloody armor from the shoulders."

Without pursuing the subject further, can we not sum it up by saying that when we are strongly intent on *seeing* something strange and bloody, our ears are for the moment partially deaf, and care little for venerable epithets; but when we lean forward to *hear*, we are not very sensitive to form and color? This seems to be a fair statement of Casares' theory, though for my part I should say that in moments of keen attention all the senses are alert, and that the artist will avoid all that is immaterial to all of them. He will then put the stress on whichever sense he wishes, at that moment, to impress. But he cannot do this freely if he is biased in favor of one the of senses.

The bias may, however, be in the reader instead of the writer, or it may be in both. Casares, if he had discussed this point, would probably have remarked that the reader in most cases ignores the cliché, and that therefore most readers are ear-minded. I have not read up on this matter, but my impression is that the statistics would show a preponderance of the eye-minded. If that should prove true, it would seem that the theory of Casares is fallacious, since there is little doubt that the majority either are indifferent to the cliché or positively like it. But however that may be, the

artist should satisfy both the eye and the ear of the most fastidious. Most books are meant for both senses, the proportion between them varying constantly. Casares has made the subject seem simpler than it is, and also has represented Ricardo León as more ear-minded and less eye-minded than he appears in his pages. In the following passage from *Casta de Hidalgos* are several clichés, but will they irritate a reader who is not out gunning for them?

Al oíra, el viejo lebel salía dando saltos, pidiendo con alegres ladridos la torta de maíz del desayuno. El gato, dormido al amor del hogar, desperezábase y, arqueando el lomo, comenzaba a maullar con su vocecilla de niño, fijos en Silda los ojos verdes. Las blancas palomas venían en bandadas a picar los granos de maíz que ella salpicaba delante de la puerta. Balaban los corderillos en el prado, y el borriquillo, alzando su cabezota gris, daba un sonoro rebuzno . . . los patos llegaban en último término con su aire de viejas beatas . . . y los conejos, saliendo de su madriguera, aguzaban las largas orejas y se ponían en fila, sentados con la gravedad de los abades en el coro.

Al amor del hogar . . . blancas palomas . . . sonoro rebuzno . . . largas orejas are clichés; but are the *viejas beatas* and the *gravedad* of abbots hackneyed phrases that automatically attach to ducks and rabbits? Are they not, rather, as unexpected as they are picturesque? I conclude that León can get away from the time-honored phrases when he wishes to do so, and that if he accepts them he has probably found them too suitable to displace.

The cliché that is indeed always objectionable is one that plainly mars the text, not one that fits the case well enough to let alone. An epithet may be exactly right in one place and ludicrously wrong in another. An example from Cervantes is this:

Apenas había el rubicundo Apolo tendido por la faz de la ancha y espaciosa tierra las doradas hebras de sus hermosos cabellos . . . cuando el famoso Don Quijote de la Mancha, *dejando las ociosas plumas*, subió sobre su famoso caballo Rocinante, y. . . .

From this downy couch we would not spare a single feather. But when León writes:

Mujeres llenas de artificios, con aire de meretrices, *adornadas de ociosas plumas*, he makes us think absurdly of a feather-bed instead of ostrich plumes in saucy hats. It is a true example of what Casares is criticizing and we heartily concur in the criticism, whether we are as sure of the explanation or not. The explanation by Casares is that the well-known passage from Don Quijote has been for León

something heard rather than seen; his ear has long associated *ociosas* with *plumas*, but he has never *seen* Don Quijote's bed. This is very different from *sonoro rebuzno* and so on: epithets quite appropriate however hackneyed and however uninteresting.

The cliché, then, varies from harmless padding to an incongruity that ruins the passage. The author's attention has been wandering. But if we call his attention to the matter he will be quick to see the point, and we hope he will be as graceful in acknowledging it as, in a slightly different connection, Monsieur Jourdain: *Par ma foi, il ya a plus de quarante ans que je dis de la prose sans que j'en susse rien; et je vous suis le plus obligé du monde de m'avoir appris cela.*

All that I have said concerns words within the current vocabulary. But another objection to the style of Ricardo León has to do with variations from accepted diction, such as old words revived and foreign terms adopted. Where there is one to observe and cry out against a stereotyped phrase there are probably a dozen to censure a gallicism or an archaism.

Here, I think, the criticism is not so secure as in the case of the cliché. León might well retort by quoting Horace, where in the *Ars Poetica* he says:

When you have to denote something modern or strange or abstruse, it is proper to use terms not heard by your forefathers. . . . The critics should not deny to Varius and Virgil what they concede to Plautus and Cecilius. And why should I be grudging the use of new words any more than Ennius and Cato, who so enriched the language of Rome by giving fresh names to old things? It was always allowable and is still quite reasonable to invent new terms.

On this topic one might enlarge as on the previous one, if there were time. But as there is not, I add only that if Horace were in León's place, he would have written in this vein chiefly in defense of his gallicisms, for this is the sorest point with the purists. And he might well have pointed to the English language, which has been enriching itself with gallicisms for nine hundred years and is still at it, and still continues to gain in power and beauty and to enlarge its empire.

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WORD COMPOSITION IN A LOGICAL LANGUAGE

ONLY a constructed language, not a natural one, can supply the illustrations needed in discussing the logical construction of a composite word,¹ a word composed of two words. The devised language Arulo is especially suited for this purpose because of the great simplicity of its elementary grammar and its ever adequate system of derivation, of forming new words from original or existing ones which may be either composite or simple. The essence of the accident of Arulo can be stated in one short sentence. The main parts of speech are recognizable through characteristic desinences, called grammatical endings. One needs to keep in mind only six of them in order to understand the deductions regarding composite words. The ending *-o* marks the noun; *-a* the adjective; *-i* the plural; *-e* the adverb; *-as* the present tense; *-ar* the infinitive. These endings have no meanings by themselves and are required only for the sake of euphony and facility. They prevent disagreeable accumulations of consonants and reveal at a glance the grammatical rôle of a word in a sentence. They may, therefore, be elided when cacophony and serious misunderstanding are not caused thereby. Affixes proper differ from grammatical endings by having precise meanings. Acquaintance with some of them is needed to be able to follow the discussion of our subject. A few affixes combined with the pertinent grammatical endings are, therefore, cited here: *-ajo* = 'concrete thing'; *-ezo* = 'abstract quality'; *-ala* = 'relating to'; *-oza* = 'containing'; *-ifar* = 'to produce'; *-igar* = 'to render'; *-izar* = 'to provide with.' The following participial endings occur quite frequently in this essay: the endings *-anta*, *-inta* denote the active participles of the present and past, and *-ata*, *-ita* the corresponding passive participles.

Some knowledge of the essentials of derivation is indispensable for a proper understanding of word composition. To obtain an adequate system of derivation all roots (root = word minus grammatical ending) must be divided into four classes or species: substantival, adjectival, verbal, and adverbial. This division of the roots is not arbitrary, but given by their very nature. The roots *cign*, *alb*, *nat*,

¹ "Composite," not "compound," is here used advisedly to indicate that the components maintain their individuality and their union is rather a loose one. (See Std. Dict., synonyms of "complex.") This is best seen in English where formally the components are often not united at all or merely by a hyphen.

hik, for instance, are, respectively, substantial, adjectival, verbal, and adverbial, that is, they signify by themselves, even without grammatical endings, respectively: 'swan,' 'white,' to 'swim,' 'here.' There are only a few roots which by themselves may be both substantival and adjectival, for instance, the roots *Angl*, *Franc*, *invalid*, *katolik*. Such roots are treated as adjectival for the reason stated below.

The primary word (word = root plus grammatical ending) obtained from a root corresponds to its species, that is, a substantival root furnishes primarily a noun, an adjectival root primarily an adjective, etc. The primary words of the four roots just cited are: *cigno*, swan; *alba*, white; *natar*, to swim; *hike*, here. Secondary words are derived from primary ones immediately or mediately in conformity with the all-important "principle of the additional idea": Every additional idea (idea not contained in the original) in a derivative requires an additional formal element in the latter to indicate that idea. Accordingly, derivation without adding a new idea is accomplished immediately, i.e., merely by change of the grammatical ending, which has no meaning by itself. For instance, *ligno*, 'wood'; *ligna*, 'wooden,' 'which is wood.' This derived adjective contains no additional idea. Derivation with the addition of a new idea, however, must be mediate, i.e., performed by affixes which do have meanings. For instance, *lignala*, *lignoza*, *lignifar*, 'relating to, containing, to produce wood.' The additional ideas in these three derivatives are: 'relating to,' 'containing,' 'to produce.' The examples just given show that the grammatical ending of the primary word is omitted in deriving a secondary word immediately or mediately.

The noun derived immediately from an adjective has been designated as the Aristotelian substantive. It contains no additional idea: *utila*, 'useful'; *la utilo*, 'the useful,' 'anything useful'. This 'anything' is neither a special thing nor a person. The concepts 'thing' and 'person' are additional ideas requiring affixes that have these meanings. 'Thing' is expressed by the suffix *-ajo* and 'person' by the ending *-u*: *utilajo*, 'useful thing,' a definite useful thing; *utilu*, 'useful person.' The Aristotelian substantive and the substantivized adjective denoting a person are obtainable only from adjectival roots. This is the reason why roots which by themselves may be both adjectival and substantival are to be fixed as adjectival.

With these preliminaries, the subject of this essay, logical word

composition, can be presented comprehensibly. Two (or more) words may be combined into one. The grammatical ending of the first one may be retained, but is better omitted. For instance, *oleo*, 'oil'; *guto*, 'drop'; *oleoguto* or better *oleguto*, 'oil drop'; *cielo* 'sky'; *blua*, 'blue'; *cieloblua* or better *cielblua*, 'sky-blue.'

The meaning of such a composite would seem to be a matter of course: *vaporo*, 'steam'; *mashino*, 'engine'; *vapormashino*, 'steam-engine'. But the matter is not so simple as it appears to be. Does the preceding composite mean: 1, engine producing steam; or 2, engine driven by steam? If it means 1, why not 2, and conversely? If it means both, how can this be reconciled with the principle of univocalness requiring that a word should have but one sense? A still more important question is this: What is the species or the primary word of a composite root? The species of a simple root is given, but that of a composite one is not. Yet the primary word of the latter is as essential as that of the former, since derivatives of composite originals, too, must conform to the principle of the additional idea and this makes necessary the knowledge of the primary word. If two words of different species are combined, for instance, the preposition *dum*, 'during,' and the noun *sturmo*, 'storm,' what is the primary word of the root *dumsturmo*? It evidently cannot be the noun *dumsturmo*, 'a duringstorm'; such a noun has no sense. Yet the root *dumsturmo* is a good one, as we shall see later.

The above problems, as far as the writer could ascertain, have never even been stated. Yet without their solution it is impossible to establish logical combination of words. The writer made, therefore, a thorough investigation of this subject and published two elaborate monographs on it.² These are little known, being composed in the Language of the Delegation, which only very few persons read or understand. The following recapitulation in English of those studies will therefore serve a useful purpose.

Greek is more expressive than Latin in many instances, due to its excellent capability of forming composite words, which capability is almost lacking in Latin. The Romanic languages have inherited from Latin this incapability of combining words. Their composites

² Pri la derivi de vorti de kompozita radikoj, *Progreso* VII, p. 486, Aug., 1914. Pri la signifiko de kompozita vorto en logikala lingvo, *Filologia Femi*, No. 1.

are irregular and capricious. On the other hand, those of English and German are more logical. *Arcus pluvius*, for instance, is in French *arc-en-ciel*. Now why should this composite signify *arcus pluvius* rather than any other *arc on the sky*, e.g., the one often seen around the moon? Is not English 'rainbow' or German *Regenbogen* more precise, since the main feature of the arc is its relation to rain or rain clouds, and the sky as the place of its appearance is obvious and need not be expressed? Is English 'hand-rail' not more logical than French *garde-fou*, since such a rail protects a wise person just as well as a fool and often is not at all intended or needed as a means of protection but as an ornament? Spanish uses *cortaplumas* for English 'penknife,' German *Federmesser*. But why must a 'cutspens' be a knife, why can it not be a pair of scissors?

The natural languages that are capable of forming good composite words, such as Greek, German, English, are sometimes irregular in this respect. But whims and irregularities are permitted to a natural language. Sometimes they even constitute some of its charming traits. In a logical language, however, they are inadmissible. Here constant norms for word composition are needed and to be strictly observed. Such norms were established in the above mentioned investigation. From a large number of composite words gathered particularly from Greek and German, which can construct such composites better than any other language, three principles could be deduced which determine all kinds of composite words.

1. Word composition has the purpose of leaving unexpressed something that is obvious either through the selfevident relation between the components or through the context; because of this purpose composites have only relative meanings depending upon the context: without that purpose composition is not justified.

Example. *Papero*, 'paper'; *sako*, 'bag'; *papersako*, 'paperbag' = *sako facita ek papero*, or *sako kontenanta papero*, 'bag made of' or 'containing paper,' according to the context. This is a correct composite; it fulfills the purpose of leaving unexpressed the words *facita ek*, 'made of,' or *kontenanta*, 'containing.' But *procera*, 'tall'; *puero*, 'boy'; *procerpuero*, 'tallboy.' This is an unjustifiable composite; nothing is gained through it; *procerpuero* does not differ from *procera puero*, 'tall boy.'

2. The meaning of a composite word must contain the meanings of all components; it contains, besides, the idea of something obvious

and therefore purposely not expressed; it must not contain any other idea.

Example. *Inter*, 'between'; *akto*, 'act'; *interakto*, 'act between,' between any two events determined by the context. *Interakto* cannot signify 'pause,' as French *entr'acte* often does, because the idea 'pause' is not contained in the components *inter* and *akto*. A word *kovrasnuko* constructed in exact imitation of French *couvre-nuque* (= a 'coverstheneck') cannot signify a special thing that covers the neck, e.g., the neck-piece of a casque, since the idea of that special thing, 'piece of a casque,' is not contained in the components *kovras*, 'it covers,' and *nuko*, 'neck,' nor in the relation between them.

3. Any two (or more) roots may be combined under the condition that some good sense can be attributed to the composite. The primary word (species) of a composite root is that word to which a good sense is attributable in a simple manner.

Example. The words *dum*, 'during'; *nokto*, 'night'; *lando*, 'land,' are given. The composite root *dumnokt* cannot be substantival; for the noun *dumnokto*, a 'duringnight,' has no sense. But to the adjective *dumnokta* one can attribute the good sense: *evenianta dum la nokto*, 'happening during the night,' the word *evenianta*, 'happening,' being omitted as obvious. *Dumnokt* is, therefore, an adjectival root. The composite root *dumland* is, however, a complete absurdity; there is no sense that one might attribute to it.

Before proceeding in the discussion several terms used in it for the sake of brevity and referring to an equation such as the following one have to be defined. *Subtera* = *situata sub la surfaco di la tero*, 'situated below the surface of the earth,' 'subterranean.' The right side of the equation is designated by the term 'decomposition,' the left side by 'composition.' The verbs 'to compose' and 'to decompose' are used to denote the transformation of one into the other.

It is easy to decompose a given composition. A rule for this is all but superfluous. But one is needed for composing a given decomposition, for instance, the decomposition *rapida velut la vento*, 'swift as the wind,' into the composition *ventrapida*, 'wind-swift.' Through the above three principles a rule is obtained for composing all kinds of decompositions and for determining the meaning of the resulting compositions. The superfluous (self-evident) words of the decomposition are omitted; the essential words are combined into one word, the principal word being always placed last; the composite root obtained is substantival, adjectival, or verbal, that is, its primary word is a noun, adjective, or verb, according to the grammati-

cal rôle of the decomposition. The following examples of given decompositions explain the preceding rule:

1. *Homo super omna altra homi*, 'man above all other men'; 2, *voyo konstruktita sub la surfaco di la tero*, 'way built below the surface of the earth'; 3, *havanta un kolo velut un cigno*, 'having a neck like a swan'; 4, *rapida per la ali*, 'swift through the wings'; 5, *skribar sub la dokumento*, 'to write under the document'; 6, *andar ek la domo*, 'to go out of the house'. The superfluous words are in No. 1: *omna altra homi*; in 3: *havanta, velut*; in 6: *la domo*; etc. The principal word in 1 is: *homo*; in 4: *rapida*; in 5: *skribar*; etc. The grammatical rôle of the decomposition in 1-2 is substantival; in 3-4 adjectival; in 5-6 verbal. The compositions obtained are, therefore: 1, *superhomo*, 'superman'; 2, *subvoyo*, 'subway'; 3, *cignokola*, 'swan-necked' (Greek *κωννοτάχης*; German, *schwanenhalsig*); 4, *alrapida*, 'wing-swift' (*πτερόπτης*, *schnellflügelig*); 5, *subskribar*, 'to write beneath'; 6, *ekandar*, 'to go out.'

In the decomposition *arko produktita per pluvo an la cielo*, 'bow produced by rain on the sky,' the superfluous words are: *produktita, per, an la cielo*. The composition is therefore *pluvarko* = *arcus pluvius*, 'rainbow,' *Regenbogen*.

The meaning of a composition is precisely the decomposition, and the grammatical rôle of the latter represents the species (primary word) of the composite root. Derivatives from composite roots are formed according to the rules for simple roots: one has to consider the species and comply with the principle of the additional idea.

Although logic does not necessitate the placing of the principal word of a decomposition at the end of the composition, this rule, for reasons of expediency, admits of no exception whenever the principal word is readily recognizable as such. In some cases two components of the composite are of equal importance, so that one cannot even speak of a principal component. It is only in these few cases that either component may be the last one. For the most part, however, one word of the decomposition stands out clearly as the principal one. The highly expressive natural languages almost always place it at the end of the composite, and there is no valid reason for deviating from this rule.

The most difficult compositions are those containing a preposition. An attempt has been made to explain them by dividing them into two types, A and B (O. Jespersen, *Progreso*, III, p. 402).

A. *Kozo*, 'thing'; *inter*, 'between'; *interkozo* = *kozo inter*, 'thing between,' 'between any two objects'; *intermuro*, 'wall between.'

B. *Interkozo* = *ulo separanta du kizi*, 'something separating two things': *interakto*, 'something separating two acts,' 'pause.'

This division can often be applied to the composite words of the natural languages incapable of proper composition and very rarely to those of the languages highly expressive in this respect. But the division is not founded upon any principle, and, what is more important, no rule can be deduced from it showing when a composition belongs to type A and when to type B, which *interkozo* is a 'thing between' and which *interkozo* is 'something separating two things.' Furthermore, type B conflicts with the principles of univocalness and of the additional idea. Both require that every element of idea in the meaning of a word be represented by an element of form. That 'something' (pause) in the composition *interkozo* of type B is not contained in the elements *inter* and *kozo* (akto).

The author of the two types makes this difference between them. In type A the first component is considered as an adverb, but in type B as a preposition, the complement (object) of which is the second component, or more justly, contained in the second component. This is an unnecessary complication. The first component can always be regarded as a true preposition. Its complement in composite roots of substantival species is never the second component, but always something omitted as obvious in conformity with the purpose of composition. For instance, in *interakto* the complement of *inter* is not *akto*, but 'any two events' determined by the context.

The consideration of the second component as the complement of the preposition and herewith the whole division into two types is due to the conclusion is erroneous. The *naturō* which is the complement of the preposition culty of finding the omitted complement in some cases. Take, for instance, *supernaturō*, 'supernature.' Here the complement of *super* is *naturō*; now *naturō* is also the second component; hence the conclusion was made that in some cases the complement of the preposition is the second component. This conclusion is not the same *naturō* which is the second component. The former is the *kreita naturō*, 'created nature,' the later is the *desirata naturō*, 'desired nature.' This can be stated more generally as follows. In some prepositional compositions the omitted complement of the preposition is a thing such as the one expressed by the second component, but not the same, the identical thing. In *vicerego*, 'vice-king,' the omitted complement is *la Rego*, 'the King (of England)', and the second component is his substitute (Lord Curzon).

The division of composite words into the two types, useless with substantival roots, is further due to the composite roots of adjectival species. In these adjectives the complement of the preposition is contained in the second component. But this feature is never lacking in them, as we shall see later, so that two types cannot be distinguished in them at all. Furthermore, it is indifferent to which type they might belong. What matters is the form and meaning of the adjective, and both are determined by the decomposition. For instance, the decomposition *okuranta inter stati*, 'occurring between states', is given. The superfluous word is *okuranta*, the principal word is *stati*, and the grammatical rôle of the decomposition is adjectival; hence we obtain the adjective *interstata* signifying: *okuranta inter stati*, 'occurring between states,' 'interstate.'

The preceding general considerations need to be confirmed by a sufficiently large number of special cases, and difficulties which inhere in some of them and could not be treated in the general discussion have to be explained. It has to be shown that the principles and rule for composition apply to all kinds of composite words. This has been done in detail in one of the monographs mentioned above (*Filologiala Temi*, No. I). In this essay the special cases can be discussed only briefly. A case which on this account may here be found inconsistent is cleared up in that monograph.

A. *Words composed of an adjective and another part of speech.* A root containing an adjectival (numeral) component is always adjectival, its primary word always an adjective.

I. Substantive-adjective roots.

a. If the quality expressed by the simple adjective is peculiar to the thing expressed by the simple noun, the relation between the components is a comparison and the omitted word is *velut*, 'as, like': *cielalta, gigantforta, glacikolda* = *alta, forta, kolda velut la cielo, un gigante, glacio*, 'high, strong, cold as the sky, a giant, ice.'

b. If the condition of (a) does not obtain, the omitted word is some appropriate preposition: *mentofebila, okulblua, pedrapida* = *febila, blua, rapida in, per, pri la mento, okuli, pedi*, 'weak, blue, swift in, through, concerning the mind, eyes, feet.'

II. Adjective-substantive roots. In these the omitted word is some adjective, usually the participial adjective *havanta*, 'having': *grandfenestra, bluciela, longbarba* = *havanta (provizita per) granda, blua, longa fenestri, cielo, barbo*, 'having (provided with) large, blue, long windows, sky, beard.'

The last part of the composites of Nos. I and II is the principal one, although this is sometimes not so readily evident as in other composites. The sweeping assertion has been made that in such composites "one cannot speak of a principal component; the two components are coordinated; one can almost permute them" (*Progr.* VII, p. 496). This statement needs to be restricted and explained. One may permute them when the quality expressed by the simple adjective is not peculiar to the thing expressed by the noun; otherwise permutation is excluded. *Rapidpeda*, 'having swift feet,' is equivalent to *pedrapida*, 'swift through the feet'; but *bluciela, nigranokta*, 'having a blue sky, black nights,' differs greatly from *cielblua, noktonigra*, 'blue, black as the sky, night.'

III. Adjective-adjective roots. The components in these are adjectives referring to the senses of sight, hearing, etc. The above

assertion holds true in these composites; the components can be permuted. This is due to the absence of a true composition in these cases. There is in them only a juxtaposition. Their composition is purposeless and might just as well be decomposed: *grizablua*, 'gray-blue' = *blugriza* = *griza* (*e*, and) *blua* = *blua* (*e*) *griza*; *surdamuta*, 'deaf and dumb' = *mutasurda* = *surda e muta* = *muta e surda*.

IV. Numeral-substantive roots. These composites do not differ from those of No. II: *trimtasta*, *centbrakia*, *milpeda* = *havanta* (*provizita per*) *tri masti*, *cent brakii*, *mil pedi*, having (provided with) three masts, hundred arms, thousand feet.

The roots of Nos. I-IV do not furnish primary nouns. This is to be emphasized especially regarding adjective-substantive roots because these do give primary nouns in German, the language best capable of composition: *Grossstadt*, *Kleinstaat*. The analogically built composites *grandurbo*, *mikrastato* are inadmissible as primary nouns because their composition is purposeless, does not differ from the decomposition; *grandurbo* = *granda urbo*, 'big town'; *mikrastato* = *mikra stato*, 'small state.' The primary words are adjectives: *grandurba*, *mikrastata* = *relatanta granda urbo*, *mikra stato* = Germ., *groszstädtisch*, *kleinstaatlich*. The nouns derived immediately from such adjectives and therefore resembling formally primary nouns are Aristotelian substantives: *grandurbo*, *mikrastato* = Germ., *Groszstädtisches*, *Kleinstaatliches*.

Substantive-adjective roots hardly ever furnish primary nouns even in German. To the composites '*butromolo*,' '*stonhardo*' as primary nouns one cannot attribute any good sense ('a buttersoft,' 'a stonehard'). The primary words are adjectives: *butromola*, *stonharda* = Germ., *butterweich*, *steinhart*. The secondary nouns derived immediately from these adjectives are Aristotelian substantives: *butromolo*, *stonhardo* = Germ., *Butterweiches*, *Steinhartes*.

B. *Words composed of two nouns*. Substantive-substantive roots usually furnish primary nouns when there is a good relation between the simple nouns. The omission of this relation is the purpose of the composition: *vapornavo*, 'steamship' (relation: *movata per*, 'moved by'); *ucelkajo*, 'bird cage' (*servanta por*, 'serving for'); *stalplumo* 'steel pen' (*konsistanta ek*, 'consisting of').

I. A substantive-substantive root furnishing a primary noun—when there is a good relation between the components—can furnish also a primary adjective. When one or the other is to be formed depends upon the decomposition. For instance, *frukto*, 'fruit'; *arboro*, 'tree.' The root *fruktarbor* may be used for the primary noun *fruktarboro* and the primary adjective *fruktarbora*. The decomposition of the former is *arboro produktanta frukti*, 'tree produc-

ing' (or some other suitable adjective) 'fruit,' 'fruit tree;' that of the latter *havanta* (*kontenanta, relatanta, provizita per*) *arbori produktanta frukti*, 'having (containing, relating to, provided with) trees producing fruit.' Likewise, *arjentarko*, 'silver bow' = *arko facita ek arjento*, 'bow made of silver;' *arjentarka* = *armizita per un arko facita ek arjento*, 'armed with a bow made of silver' (ἀργυρότοξος).

Aristotelian substantives cannot be formed from the preceding composite adjectives. '*Querkligno*' signifies 'oak-wood,' hence it cannot signify 'anything made of (or any other adjective) oak-wood.' This noun is to be expressed by '*irgo* (anything) *querkligna*.'

The composite adjective of No. B, I are multivocal: *maraqua* = *konsistanta ek, relatanta, kontenanta aquo di la maro*, 'consisting of, relating to, containing water of the sea.' An adjective of precise meaning is sometimes obtainable by mediate derivation from the composite noun: *maraquala* = *relatanta marquo*, 'relating to sea water'; *maraquoza* = *kontenanta marquo*, 'containing sea water.'

II. A substantive-substantive root consisting of two nouns between which there is no good relation can only be adjectival. For instance, a relation between *purpuro*, 'purple,' and *vango*, 'cheek'; *rozo*, 'rose,' and *fingro*, 'finger,' would have to be far-fetched. The primary word is therefore only an adjective: *purpurvanga, rozfingra*, 'having cheeks, fingers embellished with purple, roses' (ρόδοδάκτυλος).

Aristotelian substantives are obtainable from the preceding adjectives: *roz-fingro* = *irgo rozfingra*, German, *Rosenfingrigris*.

C. Words composed of a preposition and a noun. The same preposition-substantive root may furnish both a primary noun and a primary adjective. In the former the object of the preposition is never the second component, but some other noun omitted as self-evident. In the primary adjective, however, the object of the preposition is somehow contained in the second component. The decomposition indicates the primary word.

I. If the decomposition is substantival, the primary word is a noun: *intermuro*, (German) *Zwischenwand*, 'wall between' = *muro inter du chambri*, 'wall between two rooms'; object of *inter* is *du chambri*. *Subvoyo*, 'subway'; object of *sub* is *surfaco di la tero*, 'surface of the earth.' *Surstrukturo*, 'superstructure'; object of *sur* is *la precipua ferdeko di la navo*, 'the main deck of the ship.'

In some cases the object of the preposition is only seemingly the

second component, but in reality something else. For instance, in *devanchambro*, 'ante-chamber'; *kontreveneno*, 'counter-poison'; *subsekratario*, 'under-secretary'; the object of *devan*, *kontre*, *sub* is, respectively, *altra* ('another') *chambro*, *veneno*, *sekrretario*.

II. If the decomposition is adjectival, the primary word is an adjective. *Interstata* = *relatanta*, *evenianta inter plura stati*, 'relating to, occurring between several states,' 'interstate.' *Submara* = *situata sub la maro*, 'located under the sea,' 'submarine'; *superhoma* = *esanta super la krafte de homo*, 'being above the power of man,' 'superhuman.' These adjectives have no Aristotelian substantives, since the primary word may also be a noun. *Superhomo* cannot mean 'anything superhuman' because it signifies 'superman'.

III. When a primary noun would be meaningless and a good sense can be attributed to an adjective, the root is adjectival, the primary word only an adjective. For instance, the roots *semhar*, *subter*, *transriver* cannot be substantival, since the primary nouns *semharo*, 'a withouthair'; *subtero*, 'a beneathheart'; *transrivero*, 'a beyondriver,' are senseless. But to the adjectives *semhara*, *subtera*, *transrivera* are attributable these good meanings: 'being without hair,' 'situated beneath the surface of the earth,' 'beyond the river.' These adjectives have Aristotelian substantives: *semharo*, *subtero*, *transrivero* = 'anything hairless,' 'subterranean,' 'situated beyond the river.'

When to a primary adjective, too, a good meaning cannot be attributed, the root is a complete absurdity and useless. The root *dumlamp* formed from *dum*, 'during,' and *lampo*, 'lamp,' is entirely meaningless; likewise, *posfer* from *pos*, 'after,' and *fero*, 'iron.'

D. *Words composed of a preposition and a verb.* A preposition-verb root is always verbal, its primary word always a verb.

I. The simple verb is transitive. The combination of a preposition with a transitive verb furnishes a composite transitive verb. The object of the latter is the same as that of the simple verb, and the object of the preposition is some noun omitted as self-evident. *Subskribar un nomo*, 'to subscribe a name' = *skibar un nomo sub un pagino, dokumento*, ec., 'to write a name under a page, a document,' etc. *Interpozar un stulo*, 'to interpose a chair' = *pozar un stulo inter la tablo e la muro*, 'to put a chair between the table and the wall.' If the object of the preposition is mentioned, the composition has no

purpose and is to be decomposed, that is, the right side of the equation is to be used, not the left one. If *dokumento* is the object of *sub*, one cannot say *subskribar un dokumento*, but only *skribar sub un dokumento*.

II. The simple verb is intransitive.

a. The combination of a preposition with an intransitive verb furnishes ordinarily an intransitive verb. The complement of the preposition is the word omitted. *Superflugar*, 'to overfly' = *flugar super la tekto*, 'to fly over the roof.' When the complement is expressed, the composition is to be decomposed. *Eksaltar*, 'to jump out'; but, *saltar ek la kajo*, 'to jump out of the cage.'

b. Some composite verbs of the preceding class are transitive. Especially is this the case with the preposition *pri*, 'about, concerning'; *tra*, 'through'; *trans*, 'across, beyond.' The object of the composite verb is here the complement of the preposition, and nothing is omitted. The purpose of the composition is the creation of a transitive verb, which is more convenient than an intransitive one because of the passive. *Priparlar un temo*, 'to speak on, discuss a subject'; *la temo priparlita*, 'the subject discussed.' *Transnatar la rivero*, 'to swim across the river'; *la rivero transnatita*, 'the river across which one has swum.'

E. *Words composed of a verb and a noun.* Compositions consisting of a verbal and a substantival component offer the greatest difficulty. The irregular, capricious composites of some of the natural languages are just those of this class. The general proposal has been made to place the verbal component always at the beginning of the composition (*Progr.* IV, pp. 521, 710). We shall see that this is objectionable, that there is no valid reason for deviating from the general rule for composition.

I. The verb is transitive and the noun could be its object.

a. The verb is in the form of a verbal noun. Given the components *brulo*, '(the) burning,' and *ligno*, 'wood,' the question is whether *brulo* or *ligno* is to be placed last in a composition. The decomposition decides this: 1, *bruloligno* = *ligno por brulo*, 'wood for burning'; 2, *lignobrulo* = *brulo di ligno*, 'burning of wood.' In No. 1 *ligno* is the *determinatum*, i.e., the principal word, and *brulo* the *determinans*; hence *ligno* must be the last component. In No. 2 the reverse is the case. Likewise, 1, *drinkaquo* = *aquo por drinko*,

'water for drinking'; 2, *aquodrinko* = *drinko di aquo*, 'drinking of water'; 1, *skribistlibro* = *libro di un skibisto*, 'book of a writer'; 2, *libroskribisto* = *skribisto di un libro*, 'writer of a book.'

b. The verb is an adjective participle of the active. The composites of this class must be analogous to those of No. A. The primary word is always an adjective: 1, *kavalduktanta* = *duktanta (pri) un kavalo*, 'leading (with respect to) a horse' (not, e.g., with respect to a dog); 2, *duktantkavala* = *havanta kavalo duktanta*, 'having a leading horse.' The composite No. 1 corresponds to the composites of No. A, I, b (*okulblua*). A composite No. 2 is hardly recommendable though it corresponds exactly to those of No. A, II (*bluciela*). In other instances a composite No. 2 is entirely senseless: 1, *laktodrinkanta* = *drinkanta (pri) lakto*, 'drinking (with respect to) milk'; 2, *drinkantlakta* = *havanta lakto drinkanta*. Example No. 2 is an absurdity.

c. Another verbal form cannot occur in composites of No. I. With an infinitive, for instance, the composition would not differ in the least from the decomposition and therefore be useless: *drinkar-lakto* = *drinkar lakto*, 'to drink milk'; likewise, *laktodrinkar* = *lakto drinkar*, 'to drink milk.'

II. The verb is intransitive or transitive in the active or passive, and the noun part of an adverbial definition, that is, complement of a preposition.

The verbal component in this class of composites is the principal and last one. The composite root is always verbal, the primary word always a verb that has a complete conjugation. The word omitted is the preposition. *Biciklovehar* = *vehar sur un biciklo*, 'to ride on a bicycle'; *mashinskribar* = *skribar per un mashino*, 'to write with a machine.' The verbal noun and the participle accord with the infinitive: *angelkapto* = *kapto per angelo*, '(the) catching with a fishing rod'; *dezertmigrero* = *migrero tra un dezerto*, 'wanderer through a desert'; *karludanta* = *ludanta per karti*, 'playing with cards.'

If the verb is in the passive, the verbal form occurring most frequently is the participle: *sturmbatata*, 'beaten by storms'; *furidrivata*, 'driven by the Furies'; *deobenedikita*, 'blessed by God.' The verbal component is always the last one: *flechoperforita* = *perforita per un*

flecho, 'pierced by an arrow'; but *perforatflecha* has as little sense as *drinkantlakta* (See end of paragraph E, I, b).

The preceding discussion has shown that the meaning and form of a composite word are independent of the preferences of authors, being fully determined by principles of undeniable validity. Derivatives from composite words are subject to the same principles as those from simple words. There is some difference between these two kinds of derivatives. It is due to the essence of composition and has been treated at length in *Filologiala Temi* (No. I). In this essay it can only be mentioned briefly. The derivative, immediate or mediate, of a simple word is always univocal; but the immediate derivative of a composite word has many meanings depending upon the context: 1, *arbora* = 'being a tree'; 2, *arborala* = 'relating to a tree'; 3, *arborozza* = 'containing trees.' But *Fruktarbora* is multivocal, it may have the three corresponding and even other meanings. It may signify: 1, being a fruit tree; 2, relating to a fr. tr.; 3, containing fr. trees. Where great precision is desirable, a composite derivative can be formed mediately and thus be made univocal: *fruktarborala* = 'relating to a fr. tr.'; *fruktarborozza* = 'containing fr. trees.' Ordinarily the immediate composite derivative is preferable.

A great many composite words of the natural languages using them to a large extent and best capable of constructing them have been investigated by the writer with respect to the principles and rule for composition outlined above and have been found to accord with them in most cases. Indeed, the principles and the rule have been deduced from those words. Of 184 Greek composites gathered from Homer only 18 deviate slightly from the rule by having a verbal component, which is a *determinatum*, at the beginning, while in fifty other such composites the verbal *determinatum* is at the end. In every other respect the principles and rule are fully confirmed by all of the 184 Homeric words. Those interested can find them all cited and translated in the monograph mentioned above.

Advantage of Composite Words

Word composition enhances expressiveness and is a valuable means of economizing words and space. Greek surpasses other languages in beauty through its excellent capability of forming composite words. To a logically constructed language this quality can be imparted to the same extent as in Greek. Such a language can apply the analytic method (decomposition) just as well as the

languages which must apply it because of not being adapted to the synthetic method (composition). Where synthesis would create ambiguity, a good stylist writing in a logical language will employ analysis. If the context does not show readily whether *vapormashino* signifies *machino produktanta vaporo* or *machino movata per vaporo*, he will use one of these two decompositions.

The advantage of composite words is best shown by derivatives from them. Lengthy, clumsy phrases can be replaced by short expressions through the use of such derivatives. In the following few illustrative equations the left sides containing composite derivatives are certainly more elegant than the right sides in which composition is entirely avoided. Yet the former are just as clear as the latter to those not prejudiced against composition and fairly acquainted with its essence.

Lingui kompozkapbla = *lingui kapbla kompozar vorti*, 'languages capable of forming composite words.'

Laboro vapornava (also *-navala*) = *laboro relatanta un navo movata per vaporo*, 'work relating to a ship moved by steam.'

Gardeno autumnobluma (also *-blumoza*) = *gardeno kontenanta blumi floranta in l'automno*, 'garden containing flowers blossoming in the fall.'

Ventrapidigar la flugo = *rendar la flugo rapida velut la vento*, 'to make the flight swift as the wind.'

Interspacizar la chesto = *provizar la chesto per intera spaci*, 'to provide the chest with intermediate spaces.'

Surturmizar la monto = *provizar la monto per sura turmo*, 'to provide the mountain with a top tower.'

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Correspondence

To the Editor of *The Modern Language Journal*:

WARNING!

A book agent, using the name Ernest E. Walker, claiming to represent the Educational Research Foundation, 30 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, has been defrauding teachers of French in Wisconsin and neighboring states. He has offered volumes on France, Spain, and Italy, using names of members of the faculty of the University of Wisconsin as endorsers, has collected advance payments, and the books have never been delivered. Elsewhere he is reported to have solicited orders for Burton Holmes' lectures, and for other works, claiming to be endorsed by members of the faculties of other institutions. Beware of any agent attempting to make sales in this way.

Any person having information as to the whereabouts of this man is asked to communicate at once with the Chicago Better Business Bureau, 111 West Washington Street, Chicago.

CASIMIR D. ZDANOWICZ

To the Editor of *The Modern Language Journal*:

The committee on modern language teaching has on hand some copies of Coleman, *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States*, which we should be glad to distribute free of charge to subscribers to the *Modern Language Journal* as long as our supply lasts. Anyone who wishes a copy will please write to the committee, 515 West 116 Street, New York City.

ROBERT HERNDON FIFE
Chairman

To the Editor of *The Modern Language Journal*:

THE "COLEMAN REPORT" AGAIN

Like most interesting articles, the one by Mr. B. Q. Morgan in the May issue of the *Journal* (pp. 618-623) raises more questions than it settles. It broaches but does not discuss the essential problem of the "mastery" theory of learning a foreign language in contrast to what one might call a pragmatic view, as presented in the volume that Mr. Morgan labels "the Coleman report." The article is, however, chiefly concerned with the less fundamental aspects of the question, in connection with which the author makes several statements that call for comment or correction. These will be taken up *seriatim* as far as this is practicable.

1. *The facts in regard to the disagreement in the Committee on Direction and Control with respect to the views on reading were not secured and presented.*

This is a repetition of the statement made by Mr. Morgan in an earlier comment and was disposed of in a letter from me (M. L. J. XIV, p. 315), supplemented by a statement by the Chairman. To each member of the committee a letter was sent inviting an expression of his position on the "summarizing conclusions," and only three chose to register a dissenting opinion. Since Mr. Morgan, who had spoken vigorously on the point at the Toronto meeting, was not a member of the committee, he was not given an opportunity to express himself. It would perhaps, be more accurate to say that the matter was not handled in conformity with Mr. Morgan's views.

2. *The terms "reading" and "comprehension" are not defined in the text.*

If Mr. Morgan had *read* more carefully the text that he was discussing, he would have found on pp. 150 and 195 at least two explicit definitions of *reading* taken from two monographs on the subject, and on the latter page an equally definite description of the psychological process involved. He would have found also on pp. 271-272 a clear differentiation between the kind of reading under discussion and the process of getting at the thought through the mother tongue. Again on p. 373 is a sentence, of which I shall cite only a portion: "The method implied in the preceding enumeration is clearly a direct type of procedure in that the chief aims are to develop understanding of the written and spoken word without the interposition of English" Furthermore, on p. 170 occurs the sentence: "The goal must be to read the foreign language directly and *with a degree of comprehension comparable to that possessed in reading the vernacular*" (italics mine). I submit that in the passages indicated the terms *reading* and *comprehension* are defined, the former both explicitly and implicitly, the latter implicitly at least. As these terms have been used constantly without definition by writers on modern language methodology in this country, from the Committee of Twelve to Mr. Morgan in the article in question, one wonders why he suddenly grows so exacting.

3. *There is no warrant for applying experience with the vernacular to learning a foreign language.*

If this position is sound, why do advocates of the Direct Method insist upon approaching the learning of a foreign language in a "natural" way, that is by first learning material orally and thus giving the pupil the same kind of advantage that the child has in his own tongue? This is Mr. Morgan's position; it is, in his opinion, the road to "mastery." Unless he reached this conclusion on the analogy of the child's experience with the vernacular, by what steps did he arrive? Hence an analogy must exist in his mind, but only,

perhaps, between the two terms, speaking-speaking, and never between the two, reading-reading! He must qualify his statement or he will leave himself no ground to stand on.

4. *There is no evidence for assuming that all modern languages may be treated alike.*

There is certainly none for assuming that those under consideration are to be treated differently in principle. Professor Buswell could find none in regard to the *kind* of treatment by readers. The question of *quantity* is a detail, as all such questions must be until more evidence is available. The "equation" between German and French, to which Mr. Morgan refers, was not invented. It rests on data derived from teachers' statements as reported in a document to which a reference is given. It would, however, certainly be easier to "write down" a French text for beginners to a basic 500 to 600 word limit than a German text of similar character. Hence the first reading texts in French would probably be more mature in style and diction. I make Mr. Morgan a present of this point.

5. With uncommon ingenuity and much glee, Mr. Morgan shows that *the writer of the report quite misunderstood the views of Michael West*, on whose book, *Bilingualism*, he drew in several important particulars. It is true that Mr. West nowhere explicitly enumerates the pages to be covered in reading practice, but if Mr. Morgan re-read this book more carefully, and the same author's later volume, *Language in Education*, he might find enlightenment on West's views about quantity. In the first place, West suggests 30 to 40 running words per new word, and not 60 (*Bilingualism*, p. 270), but this is relatively unimportant, because Mr. West is not sure of the optimum number. Really important, as representing the author's settled views, are the following sentences from the more recent book (pp. 54-55): "The only difference that I can see (from the Direct Method) is that the Direct Method boy is kept back in his reading to the pace at which he can learn to speak; and so, since the rate of learning to speak is very slow, he gets practically no reading practice at all. Whereas I like to see his reading go ahead as fast as it can in the fixed time given to it; and the speech follows after it at whatever rate it may in the time given to it . . . ; it is natural for a boy to read better than he can speak; and he will speak all the better if this is so." Thus Mr. West agrees with Mr. Morgan that the best readers are also good speakers, and all the better speakers because they read well! "If we could ensure," West continues, "that every boy who begins to study English in this country (India) should at least attain some measure of English reading ability . . . we might produce an India able to read English widely and voraciously." On p. 70 of the same volume the author emphasizes exercises in reading rapidly. On p. 255 of *Bilingualism* he condemns the existing English reading books as altogether too

brief and calculates that for one class as many as 4500 pages of graded reading would be needed for a class year of 230 days! Again on p. 258 he notes: "On the twentieth day *Robinson Crusoe* was begun. After that other very simple story books followed." Even if these tales were abridged, the aggregate would not be meagre.

One might infer, hastily, that Mr. Morgan had not "read" the account of the West experiments in any sense of the term, defined or undefined, as used in the report. But no; he is too clever for that. Since West proposes a rationing of vocabulary, Mr. Morgan maintains that reading many pages of this material is the same thing as reading few, that it is "intensive" reading after all. This sleight-of-hand, for sleight-of-hand it is, savors a little of the old metaphysical difficulty that Achilles had in catching the tortoise. It is possible, of course, as Mr. Morgan asserts, that this method of grading texts is not sufficiently emphasised in the report. Two pages (155-157) are devoted to a summary of West's *Bilingualism*, and the grading of reading texts is specifically commended under three headings. It is again referred to on p. 169 and in a note on 272. On p. 274 is the following very definite statement: "*Such a procedure* (i.e. involving abundant reading experience) . . . would imply the preparation of reading texts in which only the commonest words and idioms occur at first, (italics mine) with a gradually increasing range as the reader gathers headway Such a gradual introduction of vocabulary is exemplified . . . in a few reading books now available. Efforts to supply simple reading matter often result in providing material below the student's level of maturity. Professor West has indicated the way of remedying the latter situation, and the various word and idiom lists . . . will be of great assistance to the makers of the reading texts of the future." (italics mine) Perhaps the statement that a new type of text is necessary for the program proposed is not conveyed to Mr. Morgan by this passage. I regret that it should have been worded so obscurely. He might have gathered, at any rate, that the individual who wrote these sentences and the Committee on Investigation which approved the submission of the report, were not thinking of books that present 4900 different Spanish words during the first year.

6. I am frankly unable to follow Mr. Morgan's analysis of a defect in the *Buswell experiment* (p. 620). The elementary pupils referred to transferred to the foreign language the eye movement behavior of mother tongue reading. The photographs showed this, but when checked for comprehension, their reading proved to be unsatisfactory and the experimenter noted the fact. This has no bearing on the general problem of speed of reading further than to provide an illustration of the obvious fact that it is possible for an individual to run his eyes along the line without registering comprehension. Any of us can have that experience when

confronted by a text in an unfamiliar tongue or even with highly technical material in the mother tongue. It shows merely that we do not *read* this particular matter as these elementary children did not *read* the test passages. It shows that we may seem to read without reading, just as many hundreds of pupils who took the composition test only seemed to be writing German or French, and as many so-called translations made by pupils are such in name only.

7. *Mr. Morgan reproaches the Committee on Investigation for not securing more evidence from schools and colleges in which very excellent work is done, and, consequently, for failing to offer approved models for the procedure of the future.* The committee was not contented with the outcome of its endeavors in this direction, but its contribution is definite and substantial when compared with that from any other source. Mr. Morgan sniffs audibly (p. 620) at the report from the school in which 1200 pages were read in two years (pp. 148-149 of the report), but it is a case in point, and particularly displeasing, probably, to him because the record shows that this school stood unusually well in its reading scores. The data gathered by an individual observer (pp. 245-248) represent another exhibit, and if the outcome is inconclusive, it merely shows that this was the wrong way to go at the problem. The detailed discussion of six schools with graphs (pp. 248-256) is an important contribution, not to mention the graphs on pp. 258-266. In only one of the schools tested was the grade of performance uniformly so high that the procedure followed there might be recommended as a national model. This was school 76 (pp. 253-254), in which is followed—will Mr. Morgan kindly stop reading at this point unless his heart is exceptionally strong?—"a definitely grammar-translation type of procedure with small attention to oral practice"!

As for the attainment at Yale and Smith, I am quite willing to believe that it is excellent, but does Mr. Morgan seriously propose that a procedure suited to the highly specialized conditions prevailing in these two eastern colleges be adopted for the 800,000 secondary school pupils of the country?

8. When Mr. Morgan wrote "*Since Mr. Coleman did not have a clear mandate from the teachers of the country, or from the committee in charge of the Study, for the exclusive recommendation of the reading method. . . .*" (p. 621), I hope that his tongue was in his cheek. How could the teachers of the country, or even a committee, give a "mandate" for bringing in this or that recommendation as the result of a *bona fide* investigation? What investigators, other than under-cover men, would seek only the evidence to support a preconceived judgment? Had the Committee of Direction and Control been able to *instruct* the Committee on Investigation, the whole matter could have been settled by a few letters and an article in the *Journal*, and Mr. Morgan, as the effective chairman of a Regional Committee, would have been spared much labor.

The crux of Mr. Morgan's article is contained in two sentences near the end: "Evidence is accumulating that the best readers are also good speakers, and the conclusion will soon be drawn, *in my opinion* (italics mine), that the shortest road to real reading goes through the oral gate This 'discovery' will *I hope* (italics mine), lead back to the realization that reading ability grows out of language mastery, which in turn is based on endless repetition of selected material, not on selection by the student from a vast and random mass of linguistic experience." Except for the misleading adjectives in the final phrase, which were suggested by an erroneous interpretation of the position taken in the report with respect to reading texts, the second sentence is a vigorous phrasing of the "mastery" theory, but since its author is content so far only to voice opinions and express hopes, the matter must rest there for the present, particularly as a real discussion would far transgress the limits of this communication.

Alongside these sentences I crave permission to quote several passages from the report, for many of the statements therein appear to elude the attention of its critics.

"In view of the widespread belief that a considerable amount of oral work is desirable, and because of the fact that in most schools known to members of the committee in which the best work is done this element is prominent, it may be inferred that the oral use of the language is certainly an accompaniment of the best teaching now being done and may be one of the factors that contribute to its success." (p. 270).

"They (the pupils) will read intensively one or two pages of each assignment with a view to mastering each word and expression." (p. 271).

"They (the pupils) will do oral and written exercises based on the reading text which will aid in developing the necessary grammatical understanding." (p. 272).

"There is great need of careful experimentation to determine . . . the effect upon learning a foreign language of the various procedures as applied under typical American school conditions. Especially is this true with respect to the relative effect upon reading power . . . of 'intensive' study of a small amount of reading material, as compared with more abundant 'direct' reading experience. . . . With the aid of carefully controlled experimentation, it should be possible to test more thoroughly the theory that a procedure of the latter kind aids the student to develop more quickly the fluency in immediate understanding of the printed page that is essential for reading with ease and enjoyment." (p. 277).

I do not quote these passages to show that there is no real difference between Mr. Morgan's view and the one proposed in the report, because there is a difference, and a definite one. They

do testify, however, to the fact that oral work and even "intensive" study of a portion of the reading are by no means banished from the classroom activities suggested in the text. They testify, furthermore, to a more liberal attitude on the whole problem than one would infer from reading Mr. Morgan's article. For my part, I assure him that when he produces adequate evidence of an objective nature in support of his hopes and opinions, no one will examine it more eagerly than I, *ruat caelum*, and the "reading method" along with it.

Meanwhile I venture to suggest to Mr. Morgan that he has quite overlooked something of importance. He deplores as a genuine calamity that the report should propose a different view of course content and classroom procedure from that favored by the majority of modern language teachers. On the other hand, he wholly ignores the analysis of teacher judgments (pp. 43-49) with respect to the attainment of objectives. Are not the admissions summarized in these pages as significant as the opinions on which Mr. Morgan lays such stress? He entirely overlooks, also, the results of the extensive test administration and the extent to which these harmonize with teachers' estimates of their pupils' achievement. I submit that no serious treatment of the problems raised by the report is possible without taking these portions of it into account.

ALGERNON COLEMAN

University of Chicago

To the Editor of *The Modern Language Journal*:

In *The Modern Language Journal* for April 1930, appeared a communication from such an eminent authority as Professor Richard T. Holbrook on the specious Hugo method, "At Sight French Course,"—a communication which all teachers of French must have welcomed and appreciated.

Can there be a royal road to learning a foreign language? Must not the heights be reached by systematic study? Are not "words, grammatical rules, verbs and so on" very important?

Accompanying the fallacious advertisements of Hugo's French Course, "French is as easy as this," to which Professor Holbrook refers, was the magnificent offer by the publishers of an "authentic, indispensable dictionary," absolutely free of charge, if the offer were taken and the French Course purchased by March 31, 1930.

This dictionary, quite in keeping with the method, contains in its 623 pages, 24000 words. It is divided into several parts, Français-Anglais by Ch. Cestre, Anglais-Français by G. Guibillon and choicest of all "Americanisms, a list of words and phrases in current use in the United States." The book is very small, "3½ × 5½ × ½ inches, to fit vest pocket or to go in a lady's purse."

I consider it full of faults from beginning to end. One of the

chief requisites of a dictionary is, in my opinion, clearness of type and printing. The type of this one is so fine that it would be difficult for many students to decipher words without the aid of a reading glass. Accents are in many cases almost indiscernible. On innumerable pages, words are so blurred that only those who know well French and English could understand them. It would be charitable, I suppose, to call some of the errors typographical.

Unusual words are given, some of them perfectly good English in the time of Edmund Spenser, but called obsolete in Webster's dictionary, edition of 1868, for example:—bateful, bateless, bouse, ghastful, halser, tongue-pad.

Unusual translations for idioms are given also: *call* over the coals = réprimander; to become a by word *among* the town = devenir la risée de toute la ville; brought up at is (sic) mother's apron-strings = élevé sous les jupons de sa mère; *Where* is he driving at? = Où veut-il en venir?

The first rule for English pronunciation states that the *th* corresponds to *s* pronounced by a lisping child, so that the proper name *Ruth* would be pronounced like the French word *rousse*. Rather misleading!

Some of the most glaring errors in other parts are as follows.

Français-Anglais

maître = teaker
mauvais plaisant = noxious poker.
au pied de la lettre = literally
temps = veather
JE voudrais etc. = I wist

English-French

to dine with Duke Humphrey = se passer de dîner.
grilsy bear = ours gris d'Amérique.
limb = membre (du corps) (the only equivalent given)
Year: leap year = année bissextile, also: school year = année bissextile.
Why the latter? It would certainly delight children.
choice, spelled also *choise* under the same word.
chickling = poussin.

Words fail me when I come to "Americanisms in current use in the United States." I should really pity the foreigner who used some of them.

Just a few will show, of course:

brother Jonathan = le peuple américain
jail = ivrognerie
jag = mettre en prison (evidently transposed)
lo = Indien (Shades of Alexander Popel)
loated = ivre

loco-focos = allumettes (long obsolete)
 mush = parapluie,—as well as bouillie de mais (sic) (no
 nation = damnation diaeresis)
 notions = menus articles d'habillement
 pantaloony = étoffe pour pantalons.

Apparently I am the only one who has ever criticized this dictionary, and in answer to a letter sent to the publishers in 1927, I was assured that the book would be made over and the "Americanisms" would be omitted. In May of this year I received word from the same publishers, Doubleday, Doran & Co., that several editions had been printed since 1927, but that the book is identical with the first edition, and that a great many copies are sold to schools every year.

ADELAIDE BAKER

136 Myrtle Street,
 Lowell, Massachusetts.

A SUGGESTION

Teachers looking about for suitable material to use in connection with advanced work in prose composition and who believe that translation from English into the foreign tongue may profitably be done as part of this work, may be interested in a scheme I am following this year with a class consisting, it is true, of but one student, but applicable, I am sure, in larger classes.

Instead of limiting ourselves to any text-book, we are translating articles, or parts of articles, sometimes of the student's own choice, from current periodicals to be found in the library. This scheme has the advantage of stimulating the student's interest in current articles dealing with the political and cultural life of the country whose language he is studying. It offers the opportunity of much variety in topic and style.

For the first assignment of the year which was: "Some article in the Nation of Sept. 17th" the student chose Dr. Feise's review of Kuno Francke's "Deutsche Arbeit in Amerika." The next week we agreed upon the editorial about tourists entitled "Souvenirs" in the Nation of Sept. 24th. Reinhold Neibuhr's article, "The German Crisis" to be found in the next issue of the Nation formed splendid material for the following lesson, for which the editorial of the Nation of Oct. 8th entitled, "Dictator or Parliament" formed a fitting sequel. Meanwhile the October issue of the World Tomorrow had attracted our attention, so that for the next week we chose to translate part of the first editorial entitled "The War-Guilt Question," and for the week to come part of the fascinating life-story of Albert Schweitzer as told in the same issue of in the article "Why a Genius Went to the Jungle" by C.H. Moehlman.

Articles of similar interest to students of French or Spanish or Italian could easily be found, and if the class is large, a magazine could be regularly subscribed to by all.

Professor of German,
Allegheny College

ANNA SCHAFHEITLIN

To the Editor of *The Modern Language Journal*:

It may interest your readers to learn about an organization, which has lately been formed in this city.

The high school students of the foreign language departments have united in one Society called The Portland Interscholastic Language League. All students taking Spanish, French and German are eligible to membership and during the few weeks of existence of the society its membership has reached a very large number of students representing all the high schools in the city.

The biweekly meetings present a program consisting of Spanish, German and French plays in which the students partake. Songs in these languages have been rendered by several professional singers, and several lectures have been given.

The immense interest the language students have displayed in this new undertaking is a cheerful proof of the wide awake interest taken in foreign languages in this city.

1765 Division St.,
Portland, Ore.

A. ENNA

To the Editor of *The Modern Language Journal*:

Paris le 10 Novembre 1930

J'ai l'honneur de faire appel à votre courtoisie et de vous prier de bien vouloir publier dans le prochain No de votre Revue "The Modern Language Journal" les précisions suivantes, précisions qu'appelle la lettre de M. Mercer imprimée dans votre Revue (pages 48, 49, 50 et 51—No d'Octobre 1930).

Je comprends mal en effet, même sous leur forme humoristique assez imprévue, les inquiétudes, les objections et les prétendues ignorances de M. Mercer (avec lequel je suis du reste en correspondance au sujet de notre Congrès international depuis plus de 6 mois).

Le projet d'un Congrès international des professeurs de langues vivantes ayant pris corps (cf pièces et documents ci-joints) après de nombreuses conférences et prises de contact (M. Zimmern, que M. Mercer connaît bien et auquel il se réfère, avait assisté à la séance privée de l'Institut de Coopération Intellectuelle—15 Janvier 1929—où ce projet de Congrès fut pour la première fois envisagé), l'un de nos premiers soins a été de demander la collaboration de nos Collègues des Etats-Unis d'Amérique. Grâce en particulier à M. Roger, Président de notre Association, nous som-

mes entrés en relations avec la "National Federation of Modern Language Teachers" qui nous avait déjà écrit, le 9 Janvier 1929:

At a recent meeting of the Executive Council of this Federation, I was directed to inform you that we are very glad to know about the activities in the field of international friendly relations, and are glad to co-operate in any way that we can . . .

Signé: Charles E. Young

et qui, à notre demande de désigner un représentant mandaté à la séance (14 Avril 1930) de la Commission *internationale* préparatoire (11 nations représentées) qui devait fixer en toute liberté, à la majorité des voix, le *lieu*, la *date* et l'*ordre du jour* du Congrès, nous répondit, le 24 Février 1930:

I take pleasure in informing you that this Federation has requested one of its former members, Professor Hugh A. Smith, at present director of the American University Union at Paris, to represent it at your preliminary meeting which I understand is to be held April 14. I have asked Professor Smith to serve us in this matter and to communicate with you. I hope that you will be able to communicate with him.

With best wishes for the success of your meeting, I am

Sincerely yours

Signé: Charles E. Young

M. le Pr Smith (qui a été délégué américain à Genève) assista donc à la séance internationale préparatoire du 14 Avril, où il eut, comme tous les autres membres (chaque état ne disposait que d'une voix) maintes occasions de présenter ses avis et ses suggestions, qui furent très écoutés; et M. Smith vota, comme tous les délégués présents, sur les motions qui furent présentées.

A la réunion de la Commission internationale du 4 Juillet 1930, M. Smith, régulièrement invité comme les autres membres, se fit excuser pour des raisons personnelles; d'ailleurs, toutes les questions importantes avaient été réglées le 14 Avril.

Nous étions donc dès lors en droit de croire, et nous persistons à croire, que la "National Federation of Modern Language Teachers" ayant officiellement délégué à nos assemblées préparatoires l'un de ses anciens membres, Directeur de l'Office universitaire américain, ancien délégué à Genève, nos Collègues des E. U. étaient représentés et disposés à prendre une part active à nos travaux communs.

Pour préparer ces travaux, nous avons rédigé, comme base de discussion, un ordre du jour *provisoire*, qui fut abondamment modifié et augmenté par la suite (propositions adoptées de l'Autriche, de la Hollande, de la Pologne, de l'Allemagne, etc.). M. Mercer ne fait allusion qu'à ce projet primitif, aujourd'hui désuet, et semble oublier qu'il a reçu, voici plus de 3 mois, le projet *définitif**

* Printed in the November Journal. Cf. p. 127 and the letter of Prof. Roger, President of the French Association of Modern Language Teachers, p. 128 ff.

que je joins à cette lettre et que M. le Pr Smith a dû vous transmettre en son temps.

M. Mercer fait une autre erreur en parlant de 22 nations participant au Congrès; il y en a 12 (douze) (cf pièces ci-jointes et y ajouter la Bulgarie); c'est du moins ce que j'ai écrit à M. Mercer.

Il fait preuve d'une imagination en vérité excessive en prétendant (page 49) que nous demanderons à nos Collègues étrangers, comme seule participation au Congrès, un message par radio: "Herzliche Glückwünsche," . . . etc. (Je signale, en passant, que mon ami M. le Dr Schade, Président de l'"Allgemeiner Deutscher Neuphilologenverband" a été, dès 1929, l'un des premiers informés de notre projet de Congrès international, et y a donné, au nom de son Association, son entière approbation). Les Français ont la renommée et la prétention de comprendre l'ironie et d'aimer la plaisanterie; mais ils ont aussi coutume de traiter sérieusement les choses sérieuses. Je serais personnellement reconnaissant à M. Mercer de me dire où il a bien pu trouver la *moindre* allusion à un projet de ce genre.

Je lui serais également fort obligé de me dire où il a appris que l'article de notre ordre du jour (rédigé en séance de Commission *internationale*) "Utilisation pédagogique de la T. S. F." pouvait être interprété dans le sens qu'il lui prête. Pour résumer les débats auxquels a assisté M. Smith, votre délégué, il s'agit tout simplement d'essayer d'obtenir une réglementation internationale de certaines émissions pédagogiques (officielles ou officieuses) de T. S. F. dans le *seul* dessein de permettre aux élèves ou aux professeurs d'un pays quelconque d'entendre à des heures fixées à l'avance des conférences *étrangères* faites à l'*étranger* (et, au besoin, relayées) par des professeurs ou des savants *étrangers* particulièrement compétents, sous leur seule responsabilité, ou avec l'agrément de leurs associations professionnelles, voire avec celui de leur gouvernement. Nous sommes donc bien loin de cette espèce de tentative d'"impérialisme radiophonique" dont M. Mercer nous accuse bien gratuitement, pour ne pas dire plus; je me permets d'ajouter que nous n'avons, en l'espèce, aucune préoccupation d'ordre financier; nombre de ceux qui s'"intéressent" à la radiophonie, même pédagogique, ne pourraient peut-être pas en dire autant.

Pour ne pas allonger outre mesure cette réponse, je passe sur nombre d'inexactitudes contenues dans la lettre de M. Mercer.

Je voudrais simplement préciser:

I/ que la "National Federation of Modern Language Teachers" a été saisie à temps de notre projet et qu'elle a délégué à nos réunions préparatoires un représentant dûment mandaté; la signature du Président de la "Federation," la qualité du délégué désigné nous ont paru suffisants.

II/ que la Commission internationale préparatoire du Congrès a eu toute liberté (notamment au cours de la séance importante du 14 Avril, à laquelle assistait M. le Pr Smith): a/ de fixer la date et le lieu du Congrès, b/ de discuter, ou plutôt d'établir l'ordre du jour *définitif* du Congrès.

III/ que M. Smith, délégué américain régulier, ou que nous étions fondés (sur la foi *des* signatures du Président de l'Association américaine) à croire tel, a voté les motions proposées par les divers membres de la Commission (Anglais, Allemand, Autrichien, etc.) et s'est engagé, comme les autres, non seulement à les porter à la connaissance de ses compatriotes, mais encore à faire pour le Congrès la plus large propagande.

IV/ que l'Association française d'une part, et la Commission internationale d'autre part n'ont eu d'autre dessein (la discussion des propositions d'un gouvernement étranger, notre collaboration avec l'I.I.C.I., etc., en font foi) que de provoquer sur le plan international une discussion impartiale des problèmes pédagogiques.

J'ajoute que je suis prêt à publier l'abondante correspondance que j'ai échangée depuis de nombreux mois à ce sujet avec M. M. Mercer, Young, Downer, etc., si toutefois ces Messieurs m'en donnent l'autorisation; on verrait par cette publication que nos intentions et que les *faits* sont ce que je dis. Copie de ces documents est dès maintenant à votre disposition, à *titre strictement personnel*.

Je ne me permettrai pas d'exiger, comme je le ferais vis à vis d'une Publication française qui m'aurait mis en cause, l'insertion de ma réponse. Je compte, je vous le répète, sur votre courtoisie et sur votre loyale impartialité.

Si le cadre de votre Revue vous le permet, je vous serais obligé de publier aussi, comme pièces annexes, les documents* que je joins à cette lettre. Ils sont nécessaires pour éclairer nos Collègues américains sur l'histoire *exacte* de la préparation de ce Congrès.

Veuillez enfin considérer, ainsi que ces Collègues qui sont vos lecteurs, que, si M. Mercer peut ou prétend parler au nom des Professeurs de L. V. des E. U. d'Amérique, je ne suis que le mandataire, désigné par un vote, de l'A.P.L.V. française, dont je suis membre.

Pour finir, j'ose espérer que la participation de nos Collègues Professeurs de L. V. des E. U. d'Amérique ne nous fera pas défaut pour cette manifestation *désintéressée*, conçue et préparée dans le seul dessein de provoquer, ou de faire progresser une collaboration effective entre les Professeurs de L. V. des différents Etats. M. Mercer me souhaitait chaleureusement un bon succès; j'espère que

* The *Ordre du Jour* has already appeared in the November Journal. We regret that we haven't space for the publication of the five single-spaced mimeographed sheets of the minutes of the meetings, the sum and substance of which appeared in Prof. Roger's letter.

les vœux qu'il a eu la bonté de m'exprimer dans ces lettres se réaliseront.

Il m'a, et il nous a été du reste tout particulièrement agréable de recevoir, dès le début de nos démarches (Février 1929) les encouragements, les félicitations et les promesses de participation active du "Allgemeiner Deutscher Neuphilologenverband" par le canal de mon ami M. le Directeur R. Schade, son Président, qui a accepté de se charger d'un important rapport.

C'est dans l'espoir que les mois qui vont suivre seront consacrés à une saine et franche collaboration entre nos deux grandes Associations que je vous prie de croire, Monsieur le Directeur, à mes sentiments de très cordiale confraternité.

FOURET

Membre du Conseil Supérieur de l'Instruction Publique
Ancien élève de l'Ecole Normale Supérieure
Professeur agrégé au Lycée Lakanal
Vice-Président de la Commission du Congrès International
79 Avenue Aristide Duru
Vanves (Seine)

[The Editor wishes to assume his share of blame for any inaccuracy of statement contained in the letter of Prof. Mercer inasmuch as the Editor exercised his privilege and condensed the material submitted by the Author.]

Notes News, and Clippings*

THE SOUTHERNWESTERN SECTION OF THE MICHIGAN STATE TEACHERS ASSOCIATION met at Battle Creek on Friday, October 31. At the meeting of the modern language section the following papers were read:

1. What Shall We Read in French, by Professor G. L. Michaud, head of the Modern Language Department, Battle Creek College.

2. What Shall We Read in Spanish, by Miss Mary West, instructor in Spanish, Albion College.

3. Methods and Devices Leading to the Acquisition of a Reading Knowledge, by Professor Pargment, University of Michigan.

The following new teachers were welcomed to the group: Miss Hortense Guilford, teacher of French at the South Haven High School; Miss Elizabeth Newland, teacher of French in Quincy; Miss Elizabeth Hull, teacher of French in Miland; Miss Alice Barber, teacher of French in the St. Joseph High School; Miss Edith Simanton, teacher of Spanish in the Benton Harbor High School; Miss Edith Simanton, teacher of Spanish in the Benton Harbor High School; and Mr. H. Hoyt Hilton, instructor in French at Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo.

MARION TAMIN

Western State Teachers College

AMERICA MAY WISH TO AVOID FOREIGN entanglements and pride herself on her isolation but we teachers and students of languages certainly miss a great deal by being so far away from the country in whose language we are interested. We are forcibly reminded of this when we read in the October issue of *Modern Languages* that Le Théâtre Classique Universitaire presented *Le Médecin Malgré Lui*, *Les Fables de La Fontaine*, *Gringoire*, *La Grammaire* in schools in or near London from October 13-18 at prices ranging from 25c-50c.

And how simple it would be to tune in on a French or German station, not to mention having only a day's ride to arrive in France or even Germany. Decidedly there would be some advantages in being a teacher of French or German in England rather than in U.S.A.

LE VRAI AMI DU TRADUCTEUR ANGLAIS-FRANÇAIS ET FRANÇAIS-ANGLAIS by Félix Boillot (Paris, Les Presses Universitaires de France, 1930, 266 p., 30 fr.) appears as a supplement and a com-

* The Editor welcomes contributions.

plement to similar works which aim to prevent confusion in the mind of the translator by pointing out the difference between French and English words which resemble each other in spelling or sound. See review in this number.

FOREIGN STUDY NOTES for December 1929—March 1930 has just come to hand. It is the publication of the Foreign Study Section of the University of Delaware and is edited by the students and staff in France.

This issue is number two of volume one. It contains besides a number of interesting articles dealing with the work of the group in Paris a letter of greetings and congratulations written by Sébastien Charléty, Recteur de l' Université de Paris.

Among the articles is one on the work of the American University Union in Paris.

We recommend this magazine to those who would get an idea of what study groups abroad are doing.

The headquarters of this Delaware Group is at 14, Rue de la Glacière, Paris.

LA CHRONIQUE DU CERCLE JUSSEURAND published at the College of the City of New York and now in its third volume shows that interest in foreign languages is sufficient in many of our educational institutions to make it possible, and possibly profitable, to publish monthly magazines in French or Spanish. We congratulate the editors upon their success.

IN THE MAY NUMBER OF HISPANIA there is an illuminating article by Dr. Julius Klein, Assistant Secretary of Commerce, Washington, D.C.—on the topic "Salient Aspects of Contemporary Spain."

The writer pictures to us present-day Spain, which, in its varying aspects at once so modern and yet so picturesque in its retention of the old, should destroy our "juvenile and motheaten notions that Spain is mainly a country of moldering castles, swaying dancers and bullfighters."

According to Dr. Klein the visitor finds a strong, unmistakable feeling of progress, energy, positive power and change as well as a most gracious, genuine and inborn courtesy, friendliness and dignity which is characteristic of both the high and the humble.

M. BLANCHE KELLY

IN MOST HIGH SCHOOLS OF SOME SIZE experiments have been made from time to time with classes segregated according to language ability. These experiments have met with varying degrees of success. Most of them have failed because of curricular difficulties which render the continuance of such classes impossible.

In the October number of "Hispania," there is an article entitled, "Factors Affecting Student Progress in Language in the Senior

High School." It has to do with an experiment carried out in the Spanish Department of the Porterville Union High School. From the statistics given the experiment seems to be succeeding. It would be very interesting to many of us who approve of the plan theoretically to learn how certain mechanical difficulties such as conflicts with classes in other departments; a standard size for classes; the diminishing of such classes over a given period etc.—have been overcome.

M. BLANCHE KELLY

VOL. VI No. 1 of *ROJO Y ORO*, a publication by the pupils in the Spanish classes of James Monroe High School is at hand. It contains reports on matters of current interest written by student contributors, a list of idioms and minimum word lists for the first two terms of Spanish as well as lists of books in English for supplementary reading in the first four terms. A publication of this nature is an ambitious undertaking for any school and could only succeed in a large New York high school which is in reality a village of considerable size with a decidedly specialized population.

GERMAN BOOK NEWS, the fall announcement number of the German Book Importing Co., 9-15 Park Place, New York City is at hand. As its name implies it brings news of the newest German publications, of translations from the German into English and of translations from English into German.

CURRENT FRENCH BOOKS, a catalog published by J. J. Champeño, 1819 Broadway, New York City does a somewhat similar service for French books.

TEACHERS IN OUR HIGH SCHOOLS will be interested in an article by Edwin M. Kelly, "Shortcomings and Merits of Assigning Lessons" in the October, 1930, Bulletin of High Points, published by the Board of Education of New York City. Dr. Lawrence S. Wilkins, Director of Modern Languages, is the editor of this live little Bulletin which always contains helpful discussions of the high school teacher's problems.

THE FIRST NUMBER OF THE NEW JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL (October, 1930, Stanford University Press) has just appeared. In an article on pages 6-11, L. R. Hiatt gives an account of curricular changes in Junior Colleges. His statement regarding the modern foreign languages is of interest.

The following is a summary of the report:

Modern foreign languages, which in 1929-30 occupied first place in amount of credit offerings in the Junior Colleges, include the following:

	1920-21		1929-30	
	<i>Credits</i>	<i>Titles</i>	<i>Credits</i>	<i>Titles</i>
French	338	10	345	10
Spanish	240	6	317	5
German	10	1	271	6
Italian	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	16	2
Total	588	17	949	23

The enormous increase in the amount of German offered is due, of course, to the unpopularity of that language in the earlier period and to its apparent usefulness according to present evaluation. The large increase in the Spanish offering is to be noted, with the relatively static character of French. Italian appears in one college in the later period.

The number of hours of modern foreign languages given by Junior Colleges increased between 1920-21 and 1929-30 by 61 percent.

E. C. HILLS

A CORRECTION. The footnote (p. 81, M. L. J., XV, No. 1, October, 1930) to Prof. Burkhard's review of Rose's *Deutsche Dichtung unsrer Zeit* should read: The German Quarterly, Vol. III, No. 4, November 1930.

THE SERVICE BUREAU FOR FRENCH TEACHERS Room 204, Teachers College, Columbia University, will answer all questions on the teaching of French, and will supply free information on the following items of interest for Teachers:

1. Textbooks published in the United States.
2. Textbooks and reference books (literature, history, geography, art, music, dictionaries, encyclopedias, etc.) imported from France, with prices.
3. Modern maps of France and Europe for Classroom use, with prices.
4. Charts, pictures and posters for instruction or decoration.
5. Periodicals.
6. Summer Session.
7. Exchange of correspondence with French pupils.
8. Study and travel in France.

Albert L. Cru
Service Bureau for French Teachers

THE NEW REPUBLIC OF OCTOBER 29 carried a review entitled "Three Frenchmen in the U. S." which is well worth the attention of every teacher of French. The books reviewed are Morand's *Champions du monde*, Duhamel's *Scènes de la vie future* and Dubreuil's *Standards: Le Travail américain vu par un ouvrier*

français. A writer in *Figaro* last spring intimated that if Duhamel was right in picturing present day life in America as the future life of the French, a Frenchman might as well die immediately—while he had a chance.

STIPENDS IN GERMAN UNIVERSITIES. In 1927 the Germanistic Society of America, Inc., established a fellowship of the value of \$1500 for an American student who contemplates studying some phase of German civilization at a German university.

The incumbents of the fellowship have been: Charles D. Buchanan, A.B. and A.M., Michigan; James Mac L. Hawkes, A.B., Harvard; Harold G. Carlson, A.B., Wesleyan, A.M. Cornell. It will again become available for 1931-1932.

At its last annual meeting the Society also established two scholarships of the value of \$500 each, to be awarded in conjunction with one of the stipends offered by the Institute of International Education which ordinarily provide only room, board and tuition.

The stipends are open both to men and to women. Applicants must be American citizens, unmarried and under thirty years of age.

The successful candidates will be required to leave for Germany by August 1 or earlier if possible, in order to devote themselves to the practice and study of oral German until the time of the official opening of the university (about October 15), when they will be expected to matriculate for the winter and summer semesters.

The stipends will be administered by the Institute of International Education through its Germanistic Society Fellowship Committee. Application blanks, properly filled out and accompanied by all required credentials, must be in the possession of the Committee by March 1, 1931. Awards will be announced by March 15.

Full information and application blanks may be obtained by addressing

GERMANISTIC SOCIETY FELLOWSHIP COMMITTEE,
Institute of International Education,
2 West 45th Street, New York, N.Y.

THE MEMBERS OF THE TEACHERS COLLEGE and the University of Paris 1931 Cooperative Plan of Studies, will sail from New York Saturday, January 24, on S. S. *Homer* (34,356 tons) with Professor Albert L. Cru as leader. The itinerary includes Funchal (Madeira), Casablanca (Morocco), Cadix-Séville, Gibraltar, Algiers and Naples where the party disembarks Feb. 10. The party will proceed from Naples to Paris by train, via Rome, Genoa, Nice, Marseille, Avignon and Lyon.

Later sailings may be made on January 30 or 31. Total expenses for five months may be between \$600 and \$700. Full information may be had by inquiry addressed to the French Department, Room 204, Teachers College, Columbia University.

DAS DEUTSCHE INSTITUT FÜR AUSLÄNDER of the University of Berlin announces the following program for 1931:—

Sprach- und Kulturkurse

1. Winterkursus: 22. Januar bis 18. März
2. Frühjahrskursus: 28. März bis 23. Mai
3. Sommerkursus: 8. Juni bis 1. August
4. Ferienkursus:
 1. Abschnitt: 9. bis 29. Juli
 2. Abschnitt: 30. Juli bis 19. August
 Für Lehrer und Lehrerinnen der deutschen Sprache im Auslande findet ein Sonderkursus statt
5. Herbstkursus: 7. September bis 31. Oktober
6. Winterkursus: 9. November bis 16. Januar 1932 (Ausführliche Programme für die einzelnen Kurse sind im Sekretariat des Instituts zu haben)

Studienreisen

29. Dezember 1930 bis 7. Januar 1931 nach Südwestdeutschland (mit Gelegenheit zum Wintersport): Frankfurt—Heidelberg—Bruchsal—Maulbronn—Stuttgart—Schwarzwald—Freiburg
28. Mai bis 3. Juni 1931 nach den Hansestädten Lübeck—Hamburg—Bremen und an die Nordsee
20. bis 31. August 1931 Reise über Thüringen an den Rhein: Jena—Weimar—Eisenach—Frankfurt/Main—Mainz—Rheinfahrt bis Bonn—Köln
29. Dezember 1931 bis 9. Januar 1932 nach Süddeutschland: Bamberg—Nürnberg—Rothenburg—Regensburg—Landschut—München und Ausflug in die Alpen (mit Gelegenheit zum Wintersport)

The October 10, 1930 issue of the *Mitteilungen* of this Institute contains the following interesting articles:—

- Karl Remme: Rückgang des Ausländerstudiums in Deutschland?
- Wilhelm von Bode: Das Deutsche Museum in Berlin (mit Abbildungen)
- Hugo Landgraf: Die Sommereise des Deutschen Instituts für Ausländer
- Richard Schirrmann: Wie die deutschen Jugendherbergen entstanden (mit Abbildungen)
- Willis D. Ellis: Der Deutsche Verein der Universität von Kalifornien

Personalia*

DR. HENRY GRATTAN DOYLE, Dean of the Lower Division and Professor of Romance Languages at George Washington University, was one of the judges at the Final Meeting of the Fifth International Oratorical Contest held in Washington, October 25, 1930.

Edmund A. Gullion of Washington, D. C. won first prize with a speech on "John Marshall and Federal Supremacy" while Paul Leduc of Quebec and Clemente Pérez-Zañartu of Santiago, Chile, won second and third places respectively. Other contestants represented England, Ireland, Germany, France and Mexico. It was a real international competition.

CHANGES AND PROMOTIONS in the Department of French and Italian at the University of Wisconsin.

Mr. C. T. Caddock, Instructor in French, is spending the year abroad. He has the "poste d'assistant" in the lycée at Auteuil.

Miss Anne Gasool, assistant in French during the past year, is now instructor in French at Smith College.

Miss Rebecca Flint, Ph.D. 1930, has an assistant-professorship at Russell Sage College, Troy, N. Y.

Mr. Wm. J. Gaines, who was abroad last year, has resigned to become assistant professor of French at the University of Richmond, Virginia.

Professor W. F. Giese has retired from active teaching, and is now living in Ascona, Ticino, Switzerland.

Mr. and Mrs. C. H. Greenleaf are on leave for the year, spending the time in Paris.

Mr. C. C. Gullette, Ph.D. 1930, is this year Associate in French at the University of Illinois.

Mr. Elton C. Hocking, who took his doctorate in the summer, is abroad as Markham Fellow.

Miss Jeanne Mettenet, formerly instructor in French, has gone to the John Burroughs School, Clayton, Missouri.

Miss Margaret B. Mott has resigned to be married to Professor R. J. Roark of the College of Engineering.

Professor Hugh A. Smith, last year Director of the American University Union in Paris, has returned and is now chairman of the Department of French and Italian.

Miss Marguerite Treille has gone to Baker University, Baldwin, Kansas, where she is head of the Modern Language Department. The Fellow for the present year is Mr. Wilson Wilmarth, who

* The Editor welcomes contributions.

obtained his M.A. here the past year. Mr. Joseph Palmeri is Scholar in French.

New members of the Department include Mr. Alden R. Hefler, M.A. Harvard, formerly instructor in French at Rice Institute and during the past year studying in Spain, now instructor in French; Mr. Francis Roy, B.A. Saint Anne College, Nova Scotia, during the past four years studying in France, instructor in French; Mr. R. Walker Scott, M.A. Princeton, formerly associate professor at Dalhousie University, instructor in French; Mlle Simone Verrier, Licencié-ès-lettres University of Poitiers, who has been teaching in England the past year, instructor in French; Mr. J. Proctor Knott, M.A. Princeton, formerly at the State College of Washington, instructor in French.

New assistants include Mrs. Mary B. Anderson, Mrs. Ethel M. Bennett, Miss Susanne Burdick, Mlle Annie Corfmat, Mr. Winslow Davies, Mrs. Rose Scott, Miss Catherine Staudt, Miss Beatrice Wadleigh.

Promotions in the department of French and Italian include the following:

Associate Professor F. D. Cheydleur to Professor of French
Marjorie Covert from Assistant to Instructor in French
André Lévêque from Assistant to Instructor in French
E. E. Milligan from Assistant to Instructor in French
J. M. Sullivan from Assistant to Instructor in French
Esther Marhofer from Assistant to Instructor in Italian
Joseph Rossi from Assistant to Instructor in Italian.

Mount Holyoke College: Associate Professor Helen E. Patch returns from a year of sabbatical leave which she spent in research work in the *Bibliothèque Nationale* in Paris.

University of Missouri: Philipp Palmer comes in from Harvard as assistant professor of German. Professor B. F. Hoffmann becomes professor emeritus of German. M. Stewart comes in from Michigan University as instructor in French.

University of Indiana: August J. Prahl transfers to Johns Hopkins University as part-time instructor in German.

Worcester Polytechnic Institute at Worcester, Massachusetts: Dr. Leland L. Atwood, formerly assistant professor of Romance Languages at Clark University, is now professor of Modern Languages and Head of the Department here.

Reviews

P. G. WILSON. *The Student's Guide to Modern Languages*. London, Toronto and New York, Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons, Ltd. 1930. 190 pp. \$1.75.

The publication of this book is of particular interest at this time, since there has arisen within the last year, in both the United Kingdom and the United States, a distinct appeal for mutual assistance in confronting the problems of modern language teaching. After having completed a survey of the methods employed in some of our leading institutions, Professor E. Allison Peers of the University of Liverpool has but recently returned to England, convinced that British and American teachers should profit more from each others' experience. It is really to be regretted that only at this advanced date has there been a desire for such coöperation. Both our nations are isolated from continental Europe; we have the common heritage of the Anglo-Saxon language, temperament and traditions; our needs cannot help but be similar and our objectives must pretty nearly be identical. We should consider our progress in America as especially gratifying for it has been the English this time who have knocked at our doors and who have evinced the greater zeal in this endeavour.

Professor Wilson, who is an instructor in the City of London College, has aimed in this book to elucidate those points which, in his experience as a learner and teacher of languages, prove to be the main stumbling-blocks for English-speaking students. He has considered French, Spanish and German side by side, taking up not only grammatical questions, but with keen psychological perception analyzing the reason the Frenchman, Spaniard, German and Anglo-Saxon says what he does. To the modern language scholar this book is invaluable from a comparative standpoint, but the authors labours have been directed mainly to the student who is just starting a foreign language. The language he uses is absolutely free from the pedantic and (to the average student) *jejune* jargon which has so consistently characterized anything from the grammarian's pen. In all cases his illustrations and examples are apt and succinct. From time to time the student's interest is provoked to further efforts by language couched in terms which appeal to him. Quoting a few specimens, we have: "The Solophone attachment . . . is the best way of using the gramophone for phonetic study. . . . Get the machine going, and listen, listen, listen," "Go, then, to the foreign talkie and be wise!" "So to your texts, O, students! to your texts!"

Those of us in America who neither favour the all-direct nor

the all-reading extremes, but rather strive for a happy medium somewhere between the two, should rejoice that we have a henchman in Professor Wilson. One of his assertions in this respect is significant: "Do not sniff at grammar, do not neglect it, but do not make it a fetish. . . . A knowledge of real grammar will feed your intellect, will guide you through difficulties, but it will be of little value without the intensive study of texts." A well-directed thrust is also made at the purists who still cannot countenance the English split infinitive. His view on the value of translation from a foreign language into English is clearly stated: translating should be done sparingly in the initial stages of learning a language and then only as a check to comprehension; translation into English is a splendid exercise in *English*, but it is powerless to advance one along the road to the mastery of a foreign tongue.

Since psycho-analysis has been more in vogue in Great Britain than on this side of the Atlantic, it is not at all surprising to find a chapter entitled so in this book. Another essentially British feature is the author's kindly though superior attitude toward American English; for instance, "Indeed, I read recently a paper read before a German Philological Society at Hamburg urging teachers to take American English as their model. And, please note, I did not put a note of exclamation at the end of that last sentence. As a linguist I merely state the fact," and also, "'No, I don't want to' becomes in vulgar American, 'I don't wanna' comparable with 'I gotta do it,' in which we see the evolution of a new defective verb!"

Professor Wilson has written a most readable and entertaining book. It should prove particularly useful to those students who are tackling a new language without the aid of a teacher. Instructors in languages will find in it points of view worthy of their attention.

W. STANLEY MARTIN

De Pauw University

BOILLOT, FÉLIX. *Le Vrai Ami du Traducteur Anglais-Français et Français-Anglais*. Les Presses Universitaires de France, Paris, 1930.

This book was inspired by Kœssler and Derocquigny's *Les Faux Amis, ou Les Trahisons du Vocabulaire Anglais*, and is practically an additional volume of it. To be sure, M. Boillot modestly admits that his work has "ni la valeur ni le mérite" of the original book, since he has spent hours where the authors of the latter have spent years, but it is evident that he must have been interested in the subject before *Les Faux Amis* appeared. There was a great need for such a book, and the beauty of it is that it works both ways: French vocabulary is just as treacherous as English, and M. Boillot acknowledges by his title what is equally true of his predecessors'

work, that it may help the Englishman in his French as much as the Frenchman in his English. He has done his job extremely well. As one would expect, he is an expert in his own language, and long study and residence in England, where he has had years of experience in teaching and examining candidates in French at Bristol University, have given him a remarkable mastery of the English tongue. He does not supply the wealth of detail and of literary quotations found in *Les Faux Amis*, but he has added an enormous number of expressions, and as he has listed (without comment except where he gives a supplementary meaning) all of the words explained in that book in alphabetical order with his own, one may easily reckon the extent of his contribution. Thus, under the letter E, his total of 65 is little less than the 74 of Koessler and Derocquigny, while under S he far exceeds them with 317 as against 79. He has taken occasion to correct certain errors of theirs, such as the curious misquotation (not a typographical error) "Little Miss Muffet sat on a buffet." Not satisfied with his own learning, he has had his work checked over by a number of prominent English and French writers and scholars (see p. 43), and the result is a book in which there appear to be few or no mistakes except mistakes of omission. And M. Boillot does not claim to be exhaustive. In his valuable as well as entertaining introduction (p. 7) he indicates the proper (and "infiniment fastidieux") method to attain that end, if indeed it is possible to attain it by any method—probably it is not. Moreover, he also disclaims a knowledge of Americanisms (he is even known to have stated his belief that the language spoken in the United States should have a different name from that spoken in England); hence, it is not surprising that standard American meanings will not be found for many of his words. In certain cases, his remarks, while true of British usage, are not true of the identical words as used in America. For example, in America the words "poor bugger" are generally no more offensive than "pauvre bougre" would be in France; a "public school" is an "école publique"; "soda," short for "soda water," is universally used without being joined to "whisky," "brandy," or "milk." Under "bonnet" (English), he gives the automobile term "capot"; in America "bonnet" has been displaced by "hood," but in England the hood of an automobile is not a "capot," but a "capote," or what we would call the "top." The word "sleeper," in railway parlance, is omitted by M. Boillot as an equivalent for "sleeping car," though he gives the French meaning for it of "traverse de bois," for which we more commonly use the word "tie," and also the French "couchette de wagon-lit," or sleeping car berth, a use of "sleeper," which is never heard in this country. Yet there are a good many Americanisms in his list.

A problem in a compilation like this is what *ought* to be omitted, and here it seems as if M. Boillot might have been more sparing,

although he seems, in his introduction, to be fully conscious of the danger. He includes English words like "payse" or "sens," which must be sought in Spenser. Again, such expressions as "pomme de pin" and "pineapple" almost seem to invite confusion, and he has wisely pointed out the danger, but is it likely (to select examples at random) that any French or English person with enough knowledge to translate the language of the other would ever confuse the English adjective "dire" with the French verb "dire," or such English verbs as "smile" and "lover" with the French noun "smille" or verb "lover," which are not even known to the average educated Frenchman? And yet, who knows? If we are willing to credit M. Boillot when he tells us that a candidate translated "Rose, émue, répondit," by "The pink emu laid another egg," we may well believe that nothing is impossible, and that no translation is too bad to be true. But if such terms are admitted to the list, why are certain much more important ones absent? The authors of *Les Faux Amis* had omitted two such easily confused words as "valuable" and "valable." M. Boillot remedies this lack, but strangely enough, "valable" does not suggest to him the English equivalent "valid" and its probable confusion with French "valide"; yet he does point out "invalid" and "invalide," the English word in this case being a negative of the French "valide" and not (when accented on the first syllable) of the English "valid!" Again, there are several meanings given for the English noun "bore," but one of the most important, "alésage" (the cylinder bore of an engine), is lacking.

However, a few gaps here and there are of little moment compared with the great merits of the book. Frequently the distinctions are of a delicate nature (see "loyal," "I seem to forget everything") that would scarcely be found in any dictionary. A valuable service has been performed for French readers in the pointing out of spurious "English" terms used in French, such as "recordman" (M. Boillot might even have added "recordwoman," which I have seen more than once as a part of French sports vocabulary); this, let it be explained to readers of non-sporting tastes, means "record holder." Last but not least, M. Boillot has a strong sense of humor and has not been afraid to let his readers know it. Some may find it overdone and self-conscious in spots, but in general it is most felicitously used and helps to impress the point. It appears in the shape of little side remarks, plays on words, or anecdotes (See under "boom," "staff," "decline," "smelt," etc.). In this respect, the introduction is worth the price of the whole book; one laughs and learns. Nor does M. Boillot lack a touch of gently satirical irony. Read in his preface about the effect produced on him by M. Kœssler's letter to the *French Quarterly*! And under the heading "D-ès-L," what could be more delightfully ironic (after an explanation of the difference between a "docteur-ès-

lettres" and a "docteur d'université," than the "points suspensifs" in the sentence "Nous serions nous-même un faux ami en encourageant par notre silence sur ce point, certains docteurs d'universités françaises à pécher par . . . ignorance des usages universitaires français?"

CLIFFORD H. BISSELL

University of California

ROEHM, ALFRED I. AND LEBERT, EUGENE M. *Simple French from Great Writers*. With Biographical and Textual Notes, Vocabulary, Phonetic Transcriptions and Exercises. Johnson Publishing Company, Richmond, 1930.

Gone are the days, I believe, when the intellectual appetite of teachers and students alike was satisfied with such fare as Scribe, Labiche, etc., supplied. Not that these writers are not the best, of their kind, but their kind is rather deceptive. They fill their purpose, because bulk is necessary in any well-balanced diet. But bulk alone does not appease real hunger for long. Students are not more intelligent or inquisitive now than they were years ago, but they have a truer sense of values. They are readier to prick the bubble of intellectual quackery than we were who had more respect for established reputations. They tire more easily of shallow smartness. I may be mistaken. Our students are not brighter or wiser than their fathers, but they are more sophisticated. Their literary and spiritual perspectives are different, and that calls for a change in the literary bill of fare we present to them every morning in class. That is why recent texts have shown a tendency to include, besides the time-honored classics for the advanced classes, works drawn either from the old or from contemporary writers whose merits approximate those of the so-called classics, for elementary and first year students.

The editors of the present text seem to have had this praiseworthy motive in mind when making their selections for their *Simple French from Great Writers*. Here is a collection that has everything to recommend it to the teacher in search of varied, interesting and worth-while material for a class of intelligent and appreciative beginners. The stories range all the way from Montaigne, through Voltaire and Hugo, down to A. France and Duhamel. One can't be more catholic in one's tastes. Some teachers may find the selections too brief in some instances really to do justice to their authors. That is inevitable in a beginning text. The biographical notes are written in easy, fluent French, readily assimilable by the student. Their one drawback is a typographical one. I believe they should have been placed before each selection, instead of being relegated all together to the end of the text. There have been provided excellent questions, material for composition, and all the necessary paraphernalia for class drill.

The textual notes and the vocabulary seem to be complete and accurate, so far as one can judge from a mere reading of the text outside the class-room.

S. A. RHODES

College of the City of New York

HILLS AND HOLBROOK. *French Short Stories*. D. C. Heath & Co. 1930. Test, 3-240. Vocabulary, 243-386. \$1.52.

In this recent collection of stories no attempt has been made to present new authors or new titles; all the selections—save, perhaps, Balzac's "*Réquisitionnaire*"—have appeared in one or more popular school text-books. This fact, however, in no way weakens the appeal of the book for all of the stories have proved their value during many years of use in this country. In short, the volume is apparently meant to be substantial rather than novel, and for that we may be thankful. There is no grammar review, no exercises for conversation or composition, no editorial accessories which add to the bulk—and price—of so many rather slight reading texts.

Each author is introduced by a biographical sketch, in French, ranging in length from six lines to half a page. It is difficult to make such short sketches very enlightening; at best they are perhaps only suggestive to one who already knows the author. But that fault is so inherent in many histories of literature that we must not be ungrateful for a few dates which place these writers correctly in their century.

There is no separate body of notes. Idiomatic material is incorporated in the vocabulary, and frequent foot-notes direct one to the key word of a particular construction. Occasional comments on grammatical points are found also at the bottom of the page. This arrangement might easily raise the question as to whether anything has been gained by the expansion of the vocabulary for the sake of economy of foot-notes. Perhaps a pedagogical principle is involved, since a good dictionary might offer the same bewildering completeness in the list of idiomatic uses of a single verb. But one cannot help wondering if easy access to the information is not rather desirable in a book intended for elementary classes. For example, if the student wishes to dig out the meaning of *me faire à mes nouvelles connaissances*, he must wade through about sixty expressions catalogued under the verb *faire*. How much time a footnote would have saved! Whereas, the student is probably left cold by the footnote which calls his attention to a good example of the pleonastic *ne*, or some linguistic subtlety.

The vocabulary seems unusually complete and accurate, but one might perhaps question the desirability of omitting words which have an English cognate. In many cases the meaning is obvious, but the average student is likely to search vainly for words like *ibis* or *mitre*, totally innocent of the English cognate. Further-

more, the presence of a verb in the vocabulary hardly justifies the omission of a noun of similar derivation. The verbs *soupirer* and *éclairer* can be found, but not the nouns *soupir* and *éclaireur*. An absolutely complete vocabulary gives assurance to the student and increases his accuracy in cases where he does not choose to guess.

B. R. JORDAN

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PARGMENT, M. S., *Trente-trois contes et nouvelles*. Edited with notes, questions and a vocabulary. New York. Henry Holt and Company, 1929. 332 pp.

Trente-trois contes et nouvelles is an excellent collection of recent and contemporary short stories representing many of the best known French writers and some of those less well-known to the American student. Anatole France, Jules Lemaitre, Michel Corday, Henry Bordeaux, Alphonse Daudet, and Guy de Maupassant are all represented by two or more stories each. Pierre Valdagne, Jean Reibrach, Paul Marguerite, Miguel Zamacois, François Coppée, René Vazin, Jean Richepin, André Theuriet, Prosper Mérimée, Rosny Aïne, René Boylesve, and Paul Bourget are represented by one story each. Some of the stories are the well-known and well-liked ones that are generally included in a collection of this type, but there are many that are refreshing because of their unfamiliarity.

The editor states in his introduction that no story was selected simply because it came from the pen of a great writer. To be included in the collection each story must have one or more of several different merits. "It must: (a) reflect some level, phase or epoch of French life; (b) have literary, aesthetic, or social value; (c) be capable of arousing and holding the interest of students." The collection of stories resulting from such careful choice leaves nothing to be desired.

Based upon each of the stories is a group of questions varying in number from eighteen to forty-six, depending upon the length of the story. These questions cover the content very thoroughly and thus furnish the student with the means of preparing himself for oral questioning in the class-room.

The notes are in French and are placed either at the foot of the page or in the back of the text according to the subject matter they treat. All notes essential for the correct reading and comprehension of the text, such as, for example, those dealing with phonetic or linguistic questions, with colloquial or provincial expressions, etc., are found at the bottom of the page, whereas those giving the student a background, historical, geographical, or otherwise, are placed at the back of the book. With the division of the notes on this basis, the student has constantly under his

eyes the notes dealing with matters of pronunciation and idiom, whereas he is compelled to rely upon his memory for those notes of general information. There is, besides the notes based upon the text, a brief biographical sketch of each author.

The notes are quite complete without being voluminous. One error was observed in the note on the pronunciation of *solennel* (p. 181, l. 16), in which is made the statement that the *en* is nasal. Later however, the correct pronunciation is indicated in the notes on page 209. One note occurs several pages late in the text, i.e. that explaining the origin of the "la" in the expression *la Saint-Nicolas* (p. 209) which could have been introduced earlier to explain *la Saint-Jean* (p. 206, l. 1).

The following omissions were noted in the vocabulary: *Verifié* (p. 64, l. 25), *par exception* (p. 159, l. 8), *les contre-poids* (p. 206, l. 23), *hou* (p. 208, l. 9), *sous-directeur* (p. 209, l. 1) *tremblée* (p. 210, l. 1) and *bah* (p. 232, l. 10). In some cases the meanings given in the vocabulary for certain words are not adequate to convey the meaning of expressions in which these words occur. These are *mine* in *montrer belle mine*, (p. 45, l. 31), *collier* in *de la bouillie à collier* (p. 88, l. 1), *se sentir* in *Il ne sentait plus ce courage* (p. 195, l. 10), *faire* in *que faire?* (p. 195, l. 13), *constituer* in *Je vais me constituer prisonnier* (p. 195, l. 28), *se déclencher* in *le geste automatique se déclenche sur un commandement* (p. 203, ll. 5-6), *bibliothèque* (defined as "library") in *bibliothèque d'acajou*, (p. 209, l. 8), and *tenir* in *Tu en tiens!* (p. 248, l. 19).

Several printer's error's were noted: in the text, *refermais* for *refermait* (p. 10, l. 35), *leurs* for *leur* (p. 94, l. 12), a hyphen wrongly inserted in *à demi-effeuillés* (p. 212, l. 25); in the vocabulary, *enlizer* for *enliser* (p. 353) and *snobishness* for *snobbishness* (p. 339).

MARIE DAVIS

Ohio State University

MANN, THOMAS. *Unordnung und Frühes Leid*, edited with notes, vocabulary, and German questions by Felix Wittmer, New York, Prentice Hall, 1930.

The author's purpose is to depict the havoc which the late war and the ensuing revolutions have played with the German psyche. In order to do this most effectively he lets the reader see everything through the eyes of a German professor of history who will, because of his training, record even the faintest reverberations of this period of disorder. The reader spends only about six hours with professor Cornelius. But when he is finally dismissed from his company he carries with him an indelible picture of this period. Against the background of the professor's philosophy of history, which acts like a very, very distant horizon, are set off the details, little incidents of the daily life in his household, incidents all varying the theme of 'Unordnung und frühes Leid.'

Teachers looking for a worthwhile text well suited for intensive reading will welcome this newcomer most heartily. Almost every sentence calls for class discussion, both for its linguistic difficulties and its philosophic content. While all this makes for slow reading, the little book holds the interest of the students just the same. For its fascinating qualities are not tied up with a fast moving plot but rest solely on the philosophical and psychological analysis of conditions obtaining in Germany some eight years ago. When the reviewer set out to test the pedagogical value of this new text in a fourth term college class, he expected loss of interest in students' German work. The very opposite proved to be the case. In spite of their hard plodding they volunteered the opinion that this was the most worthwhile German book they had read.

To give an idea of the pitfalls awaiting the student it will suffice to uncover one into which the editor himself fell. In the professor's household is a young servant, Xaver. For many years it has been the professor's first task after breakfast to remove the top leaf from the calendar on his desk. Xaver, however, this young Bavarian mushik, insists on relieving his master of this labor. A professor's habits, of course, can not be broken within a year or so, and consequently professor Cornelius tears off a second leaf, thereby robbing even his calendar of its wonted dependableness. This is Mann's laconic account: "Des Morgens, wenn der Professor frühstücket, reißt er (Xaver) auf dessen Schreibtisch das Kalenderblatt ab—sonst legt er keine hand an das Zimmer. Er soll das Kalenderblatt in Ruhe lassen, Doktor Cornelius hat es ihm oftmals anbefohlen, da dieser dazu neigt, auch das nächste noch abzureissen, und so Gefahr läuft, aus aller Ordnung zu geraten." Wittmer misses the subtle humor of the situation and thinks it is Xaver, who is so careless that he often tears off a second leaf. If Wittmer's interpretation were correct, the pronoun *dieser* would refer to Xaver and the editor would indeed be entitled to rebuke the author for a 'somewhat awkward construction.' This, however is the only serious misinterpretation on the part of the editor, who otherwise did very creditable work.

G. C. L. SCHUCHARD

Madison, N. J.

- A. B. FAUST, *Heine's Prose*, with introduction and notes, revised edition. F. C. Crofts & Company, 1928.

Teachers of German literature must feel grateful that Professor A. B. Faust's anthology of Heine's prose has been made available again. The book was originally published by the Macmillan Company more than thirty years ago. It became deservedly popular and was reprinted frequently until 1917, when the study of German in this country practically ceased. It then went out of print. But

with German gradually coming back it was natural and highly desirable to have a new edition of the book.

It is to be regretted, however, that the editor and publisher did not deem it advisable to publish a really new and really revised edition of the book instead of merely reprinting it from the old plates cast in 1899 and adding a vocabulary. It is doubtful whether in its present form the book will regain, or merits to regain, its former deserved popularity. In the first place, German spelling has changed since 1899, and some teachers will hesitate to use the book with its old orthography. In the second place, a vast literature on Heine has appeared since the beginning of this century. One of the new books, for instance, is Max J. Wolff's scholarly, monumental, and apparently definitive biography of the poet. In fact, the world's conception of Heine has changed considerably during the last thirty years, especially since the World War. The editor himself added a Supplementary Bibliography of five pages, yet he left his introduction of forty-five closely printed pages and his notes as they were written over thirty years ago.

In his Preface the editor states: "Since the second, revised critical edition of Heine's works by Ernst Elster (8 vol.), has not yet appeared completely, references to this work remain as before to the edition of 1887-1890 (7 vol.)." The fact that Elster felt himself obliged to prepare a new, thoroughly revised and enlarged edition because of the many new discoveries in the Heine field, should have determined the editor either to wait for Elster's new edition or make the references to Walzel's ten-volume edition of Heine's works published by Inselverlag, 1910-1915.

The original Preface should have been retained or else the original acknowledgments included in the new Preface. The statement: "To the acknowledgments made in the first edition of this text, the editor wishes to add . . ." is meaningless unless one knows what acknowledgments were made in the old Preface. But this is a very minor point and has nothing to do with the merits of the volume.

It is to be hoped that Professor Faust will soon prepare a really new and really revised edition of his book. The present one will serve in the meanwhile. His is the best anthology of Heine's prose available in a school edition and it is fair to expect of him that he will bring it up to date.

WILLIAM DIAMOND

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BAERG, GERHARD. *A German Grammar Review with Composition*. F. S. Crofts & Co. New York, 1930. Pp. 206.

Baerg's "German Grammar Review" is a good Grammar Review although it does not add original and new features to the Review Grammars we already have. In Baerg's little work no

strikingly fascinating method is adopted and the stories which serve as "Übungsmaterial" are to a large extent not lively enough to attract the students' interest.

On page 24 "Naturwissenschaften" should be used instead of "Wissenschaften." On page 33 we find "Verfassungsversammlung," a word which does not exist in ordinary German; "Weimarer Nationalversammlung" is the technical term most widely used. The explanations are short and clear. Nevertheless, there is no grammatical appendix where a student may look up forms or rules easily.

ERICH VON SCHROETTER

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A. WEBER, *A German-English Technical and Scientific Dictionary*. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., 1930. Pp. xii, 887. \$10.50.

A new one-volume work which deserves a wide use. The jacket tells us: "In addition to being an exhaustive dictionary of Chemical, Botanical, and Mineralogical terms, this volume is a reference book containing. . . a mass of technical data, numerous chemical formulas . . . (vocabularies of) mathematics, metallography, electrical engineering, physiology, medicine, fuels, woods, oils, coals, brewing, dyeing, paper-making, textiles, etc. . . thoroughly practical for technical men, industries, and importing firms dealing in scientific products." For chemistry a comparison with the well-known *German-English Dictionary for Chemists* by A. M. Patterson reveals that practically the whole vocabulary of the smaller work appears here and in addition a large number of chemical terms not contained in Patterson. As claimed, this dictionary is very useful for almost any technical subject. Architectural, nautical, and geographical terms are numerous, and an extensive vocabulary of commercial German is included, as a comparison with F. W. Eitzen, *Wörterbuch der Handelssprache*, I, Deutsch-Englisch, Leipzig, H. Haessel, 1922, shows.

A list of atomic weights, specific gravities, etc. is given in the back, together with a most useful 16-page list of abbreviations, signs and symbols, followed by a "Botanical Section" of 143 pp. in the form of a catalog of Latin terms with English and German equivalents. An unusual feature is a code number for every head word in the dictionary, making possible abbreviated telegrams.

The format ($10\frac{1}{4} \times 7\frac{1}{4}$ ins., two inches thick, weight four pounds) makes it a bit bulky for the brief case, but it is handy for desk use. The paper is ideal for a much-used dictionary, it is not glossy, not transparent, not stiff nor so thin that the leaves stick together. The volume lies open at any page, and handles so nicely that a thumb index on it would only be a nuisance. The binding is cloth. The print is beautifully clear and large enough to be easily

legible; there are two columns to the page. Head words are in capitals, thus the ordinary distinction to the eye in German nouns disappears.

The work has been prepared for the scientific reader who already has a respectable knowledge of German and is mainly interested in getting quickly at the meaning wanted in his reading. Thus no attention is paid to etymologies or other matters found in a scholarly non-technical lexicon. The student who would like to pronounce his new German words correctly will get no assistance from this dictionary, as all details of pronunciation, vowel quantity, and accent are ignored. The gender of nouns is indicated, but not the formation of genitive singular and nominative plural. Along with the definitions, however, chemical formulae and Latin names of plants and animals are freely given. Definitions are usually set down in a string, with only occasional hints to help the user select the meaning he needs most. Homonyms are all under one headword, as *MIETE*=mite, (insect) rent, stack; *RÜCKEN* for rücken and Rücken, etc. The meanings of verbs in the reflexive are scattered among other meanings the verbs may have, with no indication of a difference in construction ("ERINNERN: to remind; state; mention; remember; admonish; recollect"). There is such a thing as going too far in simplifying a dictionary of a foreign language. Lack of information on some of the points mentioned above may frequently lead the user into serious misconceptions. A scientist is nothing if not accurate; he should not be encouraged in slap-dash, rough-and-tumble methods in the reading of a language of precision like German—methods which would be a disgrace to him in his own field.

Idioms and phrases are given sparingly but in alphabetical order among the headwords, e.g.: far below *BRUCH* we find "*BRUCH (m)*, *ZU-GEHEN*: to fracture," etc. Until the user gets accustomed to this device he may easily overlook what he is seeking. Many, but by no means all of the compound nouns are introduced in a manner peculiarly similar and incomprehensibly strange. Thus, below *GUT*, alphabetically between *GUTSCHRIFT* and *GUTSTEUER* (as if *GUT-STENGE*!) the entry "*GUT (n)*, *STENGE*:- top mast rigging" occurs, but since *STENGE**GUT* is repeated where all users would look for it anyway—under the *S*-words—it is a waste of space and effort to give it under *GUT*. Three whole pages of compounds in which *PUMPE* is the *final* element are all under *PUMPE*, but are usually *not* repeated under their first element. The disadvantages of such an arrangement outweigh the advantage of having all the pumps in one list.

The American user is frequently conscious of the fact that the definitions are in British English only. "*GÜTERWAGEN*, *GE-DECKTER*—: covered goods wagon," "*GÜTERWAGEN*, *OFFENER*—:

open truck," might register more quickly with him as 'box car' and 'flat car.'

Many words whose meaning would be obvious to speakers of English are omitted (FILAMENT, etc.), but others are included: EXPANSION, EXPERIMENT, etc., etc. It is too much to expect one's own ideas of consistency in inclusions and omissions to be carried out, as when FURCHTBAR is given but not FÜRCHTERLICH; KULT, KULTER but not KULTUS; DRACHE as 'dragon' but not as 'kite,' etc. In a modern technical dictionary one ought to find AUFSTIEG, TONFILM, RUNDFUNK, etc., even if ILLINIUM is not yet given a place.

The user must know his German well enough to get at the meaning of such missing words as HEBUNG from the given word HEBEN; EINBÜSSEN from EINBUSSE; VERWESLICH from VERWESEN. He should not, and probably is not expected to dispense with his good non-technical dictionary (like H. G. C. Brandt, *German-English Dictionary*, New York, G. E. Stechert & Co.; Muret-Sanders in the large edition, or in the Hand- und Schulausgabe, German-English part by H. Baumann; or even Karl Bruel's well known German and English dictionary published by Cassell, re-issued by Heath) for a good many useful compound verbs, with derivatives, like: ABPLATTEN, ABPLATTUNG; ABSTAMMEN, ABSTAMMUNG; ABWÄGEN, ABWÄGUNG; ANSTEHEN, 'to crop out'; ANSTELLEN (EINEN VERSUCH); AUSZEICHNEN, AUSZEICHNUNG; ZUWENDEN; ERHEISCHEN; ERSINNEN; also for IN ABREDE STELLEN; ERST (especially in the most needed meanings of 'only' or 'not until', and in an expression like FÜRS ERSTE); EINMAL (AUF EINMAL); VORN (VORNE is given but not VON VORN HEREIN).

It is high time the definitions of REICH and its compounds should be adapted to the Republic, but that is not done here. No one expects to find every technical term in a one-volume dictionary, —in chemistry I miss AMYLASE (*f*), OXIMBILDUNG, XYLINDEIN, and others in Webel's work.

I noticed a few misprints of no great importance. But it is not a question of misprints when FILM, KINOFILM are given as of feminine gender (instead of masculine), and MOMENT as neuter only.

In spite of certain peculiarities and shortcomings this dictionary can be strongly recommended to the readers of technical German. Very many will say that it is just the work they have been waiting for to supplement their general dictionaries. If only the price were, say, five dollars, instead of ten dollars and a half!

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